

U·X·L

ENCYCLOPEDIA
OF WORLD
BIOGRAPHY



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reader's guide

U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

for further information. A contents section lists biographees by their nationality. Nearly 750 photographs and illustrations are featured, and a general index provides quick access to the people and subjects discussed throughout *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*.

Special thanks

Much appreciation goes to Mary Alice Anderson, media specialist at Winona Middle School in Winona, Minnesota, and Nina Levine, library media specialist at Blue Mountain Middle School in Cortlandt Manor, New York, for their assistance in developing the entry list. Many thanks also go to the following people for their important editorial contri-

butions: Taryn Benbow-Pfalzgraf (proofreading), Jodi Essey-Stapleton (copyediting and proofing), Margaret Haerens (proofreading), Courtney Mroch (copyediting), and Theresa Murray (copyediting and indexing). Special gratitude goes to Linda Mahoney at LM Design for her excellent typesetting work and her flexible attitude.

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ANDREW JACKSON

Born: March 15, 1767

Waxhaw, South Carolina

Died: June 8, 1845

Nashville, Tennessee

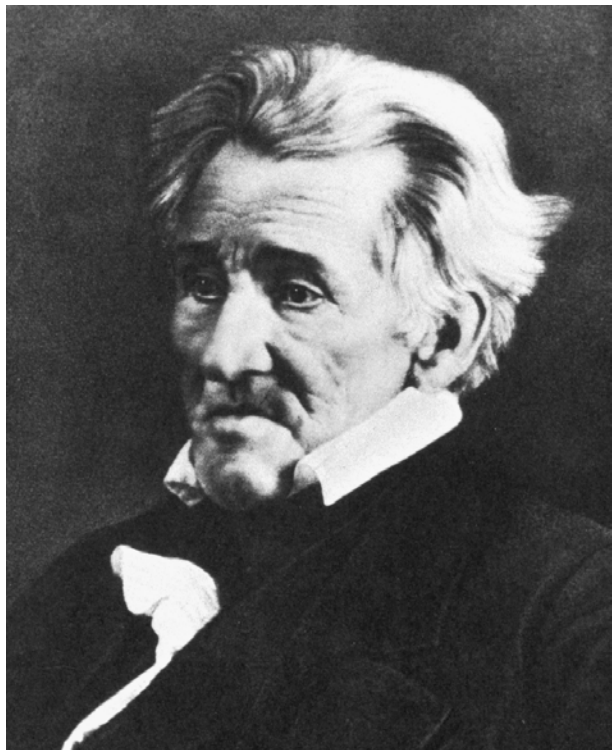
American president and lawyer

Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) was the seventh president of the United States. He symbolized the democratic advances of his time, while strengthening the power of the presidential office in American government.

A young soldier

Andrew Jackson was born on March 15, 1767, in Waxhaw country, which is now part of North and South Carolina. His father, who died shortly before Andrew's birth, had come with his wife to America from Ireland in 1765. Andrew attended several academies in the Waxhaw settlement, but his education was incomplete and he never developed a taste for learning.

After the outbreak of the American Revolution (1775–83), where the American colonies fought to break away from British rule, Jackson, barely thirteen years old, served as an orderly (an attendant). Following a battle, Jackson and his brother were captured by the British and taken to a prison



Andrew Jackson.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

camp. When Jackson refused to clean an officer's boots, the officer slashed him with a sword, leaving a permanent scar on his forehead and left hand. Jackson was the only member of his family to survive the war. Many believe that his harsh, adventuresome, early life developed his strong, aggressive qualities of leadership, his violent temper, and his need for intense loyalty from friends.

Lawyer and politician

After the war Jackson drifted from one job to another and from one relative to another. He wasted a small inheritance and for a time lived a wild and undisciplined life. Then, in 1784 Jackson left for Salisbury, North Car-

olina, where he studied law in a local office. Three years later, after earning his law license, he moved to the western district that eventually became Tennessee. Living in Nashville, Tennessee, Jackson soon became a distinguished lawyer. Within ten years he became one of the most important landowners in the state. He also achieved social status by marrying Rachel Donelson (1767–1828), the daughter of one of the region's original settlers.

In 1796 Jackson represented his county when the Southwest Territory (areas west of the Mississippi River) petitioned Congress for admission as a state to the Union, as the United States was known. Although he played a modest, or small, part in the proceedings, one tradition does credit him with suggesting the name of the new state: Tennessee, taken from the name of a Cherokee Indian chief.

After Tennessee was admitted as the sixteenth state of the Union, Jackson was elected to its only seat in Congress. The following year he became judge of the Superior Court of Tennessee. He resigned from the bench in 1804 to devote himself to his plantation, where he later built a graceful mansion called the "Hermitage."

Military career

Jackson's life would change when, once again, war erupted between America and Great Britain in the War of 1812 (1812–15). Jackson had achieved the rank of major general (an officer in the military who is above a brigadier general) of the Tennessee militia (a small military force that is not part of the regular army). He and his militia were ordered to overpower the Creek Indians in Alabama, who had massacred white settlers at Fort Mims. At the Battle of Horseshoe Bend

(1814) Jackson dealt the Creek a crushing defeat. During this battle Jackson's men recognized his toughness and strong will by nicknaming him "Old Hickory."

When the U.S. government heard rumors of a British attack of the South through one of the ports on the Gulf of Mexico, Jackson was ordered to block the invasion. The British attacked on January 8, 1815, and were easily defeated. More than two thousand British soldiers were killed, while only thirteen Americans were lost in battle. Jackson became a national hero overnight, for he had given Americans confidence in their ability to defend their new freedom.

When the war ended, Jackson returned to his plantation. However, he soon resumed military duty to successfully overpower Indian forces along the southern frontier of Spanish Florida. After President James Monroe (1758–1831) purchased Florida from Spain for \$5 million, Jackson served as governor of the Florida Territory. He quit after serving only a few months.

Running for president

His accomplishments served to increase Jackson's popularity throughout the country. Meanwhile his friends in Tennessee began talking about the possibility of making him a presidential candidate. First, he was elected to the U.S. Senate in October 1823.

The following year, four candidates sought the presidency, each representing a different section of the country: Jackson of Tennessee, William H. Crawford (1772–1834) of Georgia, John Quincy Adams (1767–1848) of Massachusetts, and Henry Clay (1777–1852) of Kentucky. It was a close election, and the House of Repre-

sentatives had to decide the winner. When John Quincy Adams was chosen president, Jackson was convinced the election was fixed and that there was a "bargain" between Adams and Clay. For the next four years Jackson's supporters attacked the Adams administration with the accusation of a "corrupt bargain."

"Old Hickory" as president

In the election of 1828 Jackson won an overwhelming victory. During the campaign, Martin Van Buren (1782–1862) of New York and John C. Calhoun (1782–1850) of South Carolina joined forces behind Jackson. Jackson and his supporters soon became known as the Democratic Party. Supporters of Adams and Clay were now called National Republicans.

Relations between President Jackson and Vice President Calhoun soon turned sour. The two argued over the important constitutional question of the nature of the Union. Calhoun strongly believed in a state's doctrine (official statement) of nullification, or the right of a state to undo any federal law that disagreed with the state's views. Jackson strongly believed nullification was wrong and could weaken the Union. Calhoun wound up resigning before the end of his term.

Reelection and the bank war

The presidential contest of 1832 revolved around the important political issue of the national bank, or the bank controlled by the national government. Jackson believed the Second Bank of the United States (established in 1816) was unconstitutional, or that it disagreed with the nation's rules. Also, Jackson maintained that the Bank had failed to establish a sound and uniform currency, or money that could be used across the country.

When the Bank applied to Congress to continue its work, Jackson vetoed (rejected) the bill. Although the bill would pass in the end, Jackson sent a strong message by saying how “the rich and powerful too often bend the acts of government to their selfish purposes.” With this message Jackson broadened presidential power by giving social, political, and economic reasons for vetoing the bill.

A second term

In the 1832 presidential election Jackson and vice presidential candidate Van Buren defeated Henry Clay. Jackson then informed Congress of his intention to pay off the national debt. This goal was achieved on January 1, 1835, thanks to income the federal government received from land sales and tariffs (import taxes).

Jackson supported a policy of “rotation” with respect to Federal offices. He declared that no one man has more right to office than any other man. Jackson also supported moving Native Americans west of the Mississippi River as the most humane, or fair, policy the government could pursue in dealing with the Native Americans. Jackson signed more than ninety treaties with various tribes, in which lands owned by Native Americans within the existing states, were exchanged for new lands in the open West.

Nullification ordinance

Another issue in Jackson’s second term was that of tariffs. The North called for high rates, but the South considered them a way of financially supporting northern manufacturers at the expense of southern businesses. With the passage of the Tariff of 1832, which reduced the import taxes but not enough to

satisfy southern states, South Carolina reacted violently. The state called on Calhoun’s doctrine of nullification and soon declared the tariffs of 1828 and 1832 null and void. The state then warned the federal government that if force were used to execute the law, the state would secede, or withdraw membership, from the Union. Jackson would not back down, and threatened the state with treason, or a high crime against one’s country.

A compromise tariff was soon hurried through Congress. Jackson had avoided a national crisis, and his actions during the controversy were masterful. Through the careful use of presidential powers and compromise, he preserved the Union and upheld the power of federal law.

At the end of his two terms in office, having participated in the inauguration of his successor, Martin Van Buren, Jackson retired to his plantation. He continued to keep his hand in national politics until his death on June 8, 1845.

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JESSE JACKSON

Born: October 18, 1941

Greenville, South Carolina

African American political leader, religious minister, and orator

Civil rights leader Reverend Jesse Jackson has spent decades in the public eye in support of ending racial and class divisions in America. He is the founder of the Rainbow/PUSH Coalition, a group that works to improve the lives of people throughout the United States and the world.

Early life and education

Jesse Louis Jackson was born on October 18, 1941, in Greenville, South Carolina. He was the son of Helen Burns and her married next-door neighbor, Noah Robinson. Jackson was teased by his neighbors and classmates for being “a nobody who had no daddy.” Jackson developed a strong desire to succeed and an understanding of the oppressed (those who are treated unjustly). With advice from his grandmother, Jackson overcame his childhood problems, finishing tenth in his high-school class. He earned a football scholarship to attend the University of Illinois in Chicago. Jackson, eager to get away from the prejudice (dislike of people based on their race) and segregation (separation based on race) of the South, traveled north only to find both open and hidden discrimination (unequal treatment) at the university and in other parts of the city.

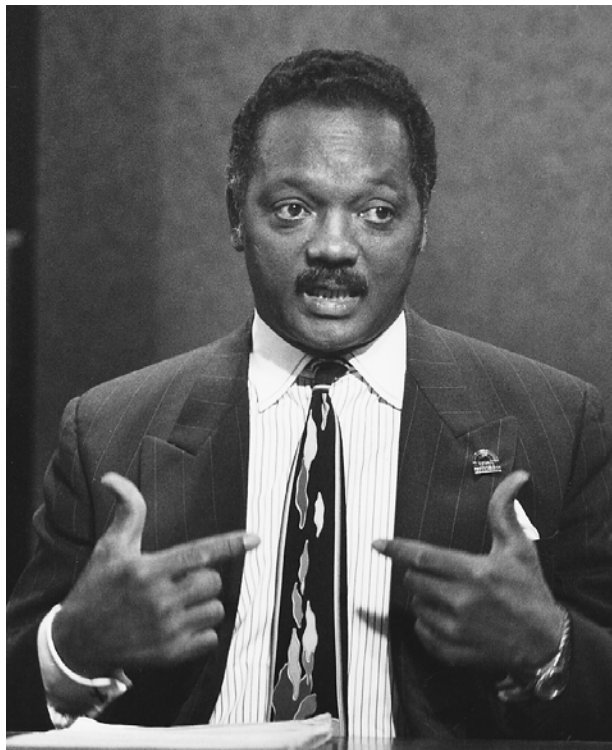
After several semesters Jackson decided to leave the University of Illinois. He

returned to the South and enrolled at North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College (A&T) in Greensboro, North Carolina, an institution for African American students, where he was elected student body president. As a college senior he became a leader in the civil rights movement. Jackson actively encouraged his fellow students to protest against racial injustice by staging repeated demonstrations and boycotts (protests in which, for example, organizers refuse to shop at a certain store in an attempt to get the store to change an unjust policy or position). Jackson graduated in 1964 with a degree in sociology and economics.

Civil rights movement

After graduation Jackson decided to attend the Chicago Theological Seminary. After two and a half years at the school, Jackson left the seminary (a place for religious education) in 1966 before completing his divinity degree (a degree in the study of religion). He also joined the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC), a civil rights organization led by Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968) that held nonviolent protests against segregation in the South. In April 1968 many of SCLC's officers—including Jackson—were drawn away from other civil rights protests by a garbage collectors' strike in Memphis, Tennessee. Tragically, King, in his attempt to prevent racial violence in that city, was killed by an assassin's bullet while standing on the balcony of his hotel room.

Jackson later claimed on national television that he had been the last person to talk to King and that he had held the dying leader in his arms, getting blood all over his shirt. The other men present agreed that this was not



Jesse Jackson.

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true—that Jackson had been in the parking lot facing King when the shooting occurred and had neither climbed the steps to the balcony afterward nor gone to the hospital with King. Whatever the truth of the matter may be, Jackson's appearance on national television the next day with his bloodied shirt brought the horror of the assassination into American homes, making him a well-known national figure. This publicity caused the media to refer to him as the new leader of the civil rights movement. In 1971 Jackson was suspended from the SCLC after its leaders claimed that he was using the organization to further his own personal goals.

After his suspension, Jackson founded Operation PUSH (People United to Save Humanity). Standing in front of a picture of Dr. King, Jackson promised to begin “a rainbow coalition of blacks and whites gathered together to push for a greater share of economic and political power for all poor people in America.” Jackson spoke out against racial prejudice and discrimination, military action, and class divisions in America. In 1976 Jackson created PUSH-Excel, a program aimed at encouraging children and teens to succeed. A fiery orator (public speaker), Jackson traveled from city to city delivering his message of personal responsibility and self-worth to students: “You’re not a man because you can kill somebody. You are not a man because you can make a baby . . . You’re a man only if you can raise a baby, protect a baby and provide for a baby.”

The rainbow coalition and bids for the presidency

Jackson became involved in international politics when President Jimmy Carter (1924–) approved his visit to South Africa. Jackson attracted huge crowds at rallies, where he denounced (criticized) apartheid, South Africa's political system that prevented the black majority of the population from enjoying the rights and privileges of the white minority. Later in 1979 he toured the Middle East, where he was criticized for embracing Yasir Arafat (1929–), the Palestinian leader who was considered a terrorist (a person who uses terror to force others to act in a certain way) by the American government. These international trips caused Jackson's fame and popularity to grow within the African American community.

As the 1980s began, Jackson was no longer a young man with long hair and gold chains but was instead a more mature figure seeking ways to change the Democratic Party from within. He continued to promote his "rainbow coalition" as a way for all Americans to improve the country. Jackson's support in the African American community also allowed him to influence both local and national elections. Possibly the most important campaign in which he was involved was the election victory of Harold Washington, the first African American mayor of Chicago, Illinois, in 1983. Jackson's ability to convince over one hundred thousand African Americans, many of them youths, to register to vote played a large part in Washington's victory.

Jackson decided to campaign in the 1984 presidential election as a Democrat. His campaign focused on social programs for the poor and disabled, reduced taxes for the poor, increased voting rights, effective programs to improve the job opportunities of women and minorities, and improved civil rights. He called for increased aid to African nations and more consideration of the rights of Arabs. Many senior African American politicians refused to support Jackson, believing that his candidacy would disrupt the Democratic Party and benefit the Republicans. However, many poor African Americans supported him. He received 3.5 million votes, and possibly 2 million of those voters were newly registered. Although his campaign was unsuccessful, Jackson had broken new ground while involving more African Americans in the political process.

After the 1984 election Jackson split his time between working for Operation PUSH in Chicago and his new National Rainbow Coal-

tion, which he began in 1985, in Washington, D.C. (The two organizations later joined together to form the Rainbow/PUSH Coalition.) He ran again for the Democratic presidential nomination in the 1988 election. Although his second campaign received much wider support, Jackson finished second to Massachusetts Governor Michael Dukakis (1933–), who went on to lose the presidential election. In 1992 he backed Democratic candidate Bill Clinton (1946–) during the presidential campaign. He used his influence to urge African American voters to support Clinton. These efforts helped Clinton win the election and return a Democrat to the White House for the first time in twelve years.

More recent activities

Despite criticism that he was simply a cheerleader for causes and represented style more than substance, Jackson continued to speak out for civil rights and to challenge others to improve themselves. In 1995 Jackson wrote in *Essence* magazine, "People who are victimized may not be responsible for being down, but they must be responsible for getting up. Slave masters don't retire; people who are enslaved change their minds and choose to join the abolitionist [antislavery] struggle. . . . Change has always been led by those whose spirits were bigger than their circumstances. . . . I do have hope. We have seen significant victories during the last 25 years."

In November 1999 Jackson came to the defense of six high-school students expelled for fighting in Decatur, Illinois. The Decatur school board expelled the students for two years for their involvement in a brawl during a football game in September 1999. Jackson met with the board to try to reach a compro-

mise that would allow the students to return to regular classes, but the board would only agree to reduce the punishment to one year and to allow the students to attend a different school. As a result, Jackson led a protest march at the school, where he was arrested for criminal trespassing.

Jackson received his master of divinity degree from the Chicago Theological Seminary on June 3, 2000. He had been only three courses short of earning his degree when he left the school more than three decades earlier. On August 9, 2000, President Bill Clinton awarded a Presidential Medal of Freedom to Jackson. The medal is the highest honor for civilians (nonmembers of military, police or fire-fighting units) in the United States. Jackson disappointed many of his followers when it became known in 2001 that he had fathered a daughter—who was twenty months old at the time of his announcement—with a woman other than his wife. “I fully accept responsibility, and I am truly sorry for my actions,” he said in a written statement. Despite this setback in his personal life, Jackson continues to be a successful advocate for human rights and social change.

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MICHAEL JACKSON

Born: August 29, 1958

Gary, Indiana

African American entertainer, singer, and songwriter

A performer since the age of five, Michael Jackson is one of the most popular singers in history. His 1983 album, *Thriller*, sold forty million copies, making it the biggest seller of all time. Through his record albums and music videos he created an image imitated by his millions of fans.

Career planned in advance

Michael Joe Jackson was born in Gary, Indiana, on August 29, 1958, the fifth of Joe and Katherine Jackson's nine children. The house was always filled with music. Jackson's mother taught the children folk and religious songs, to which they sang along. Jackson's father, who worked at a steel plant, had always dreamed of becoming a successful musician. When this failed to happen, he decided to do whatever it took to make successes of his children. He tried to control his children's careers even after they were adults. The struggle for the control of the musical fortunes of the Jackson family was a constant source of conflict.

The Jackson boys soon formed a family band that became a success at amateur shows and talent contests throughout the Midwest. From the age of five Michael's amazing talent showed itself. His dancing and stage presence caused him to become the focus of the group.

His older brother, Jackie, told Gerri Hershey in *Rolling Stone*, “It was sort of frightening. He was so young. I don’t know where he got it. He just *knew*.”

Discovered by Motown

The Jacksons’ fame and popularity soon began to spread. While performing at the Apollo Theater in New York City’s Harlem neighborhood in 1968, Motown recording artist Gladys Knight (1944–) and pianist Billy Taylor discovered them. Later that year singer Diana Ross (1944–) became associated with the boys during a “Soul Weekend” in Gary. With Ross’s support, the Jacksons signed a contract with Motown Records. Berry Gordy (1929–), the famous head of Motown, took control of the Jacksons’ careers.

By 1970 the group, known as the Jackson Five, was topping the charts and riding a wave of popularity with such hits as “ABC,” “The Love You Save,” and “I’ll Be There,” each of which sold over one million copies. The group also appeared on several televised specials, and a *Jackson Five* cartoon series was created. Gordy quickly recognized Michael’s appeal and released albums featuring him alone. These solo albums sold as well as those of the Jackson Five. The group managed to survive Michael’s voice change and a bitter break with Motown Records in 1976, but as the Jackson family they continued to fight with each other and with their own father.

In 1978 Michael Jackson appeared in *The Wiz*, an African American version of *The Wizard of Oz*. He sang the only hit from the film’s soundtrack album (“Ease On Down the Road”) in a duet with the star, Diana Ross. His success as the Scarecrow was a preview of what was to come in his videos, for Jackson seemed to care



Michael Jackson.

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most about dancing. (He later dedicated his autobiography [the story of his one’s own life] to dance legend Fred Astaire [1899–1987], and the autobiography’s title, *Moonwalk*, refers to a dance that Jackson made popular.)

Unbelievable success

While working on *The Wiz*, Jackson met producer Quincy Jones (1933–). They worked together on Jackson’s 1979 album *Off the Wall*, which sold ten million copies and earned critical praise. In 1982 Jackson and Jones again joined forces on the *Thriller* album. *Thriller* fully established Jackson as a solo performer, and his hit songs from the album—“Beat It,”

"Billie Jean," and "Thriller"—made him the major pop star of the early 1980s. The success of *Thriller* (with forty million copies sold, it remains one of the best-selling albums of all time) and the videos of its songs also helped Jackson break the color barrier imposed by radio stations and the powerful music video channel MTV. By 1983 Jackson was the single most popular entertainer in America.

In 1985 Jackson reunited with Quincy Jones for USA for Africa's "We Are the World," which raised funds for the poor in Africa. Jackson's next two albums, *Bad* (1987) and *Dangerous* (1991), were not as hugely successful as *Thriller*, but Jackson remained in the spotlight throughout the 1980s and into the 1990s. In 1992 he founded "Heal the World" to aid children and the environment. In 1993 he was presented with the "Living Legend Award" at the Grammy Awards ceremony and with the Humanitarian (one who promotes human welfare) of the Year trophy at the *Soul Train* awards.

Rocked by scandal

Despite Jackson's popularity and good works, he became the subject of a major scandal (action that damages one's reputation). In 1993 a thirteen-year-old boy accused Jackson of sexually abusing him at the star's home. Jackson settled the case out of court while insisting he was innocent. The scandal cost Jackson his endorsement (paid public support of a company's products) contract with Pepsi and a film deal. His sexual preference was called into question, and his public image was severely damaged.

In 1995 Jackson was criticized following the release of his new album *HIStory: Past, Present, and Future, Book I*. One of the songs on the album, "They Don't Care About Us,"

seemed to contain anti-Semitic (showing hatred toward Jewish people) lyrics (words). To avoid further criticism, Jackson changed the lyrics. He also wrote a letter of apology to Rabbi Marvin Hier, head of the Simon Wiesenthal Center for Holocaust Studies, who had protested the lyrics.

Marriage and fatherhood

In 1994 Jackson shocked the world when he married Lisa Marie Presley, daughter of the late (deceased) rock legend Elvis Presley (1935–1977). Many felt that the marriage was an attempt to improve his public image. In August 1996 Jackson and Presley divorced. In November 1996 Jackson announced that he was to be a father. The child's mother was Debbie Rowe, a long-time friend of Jackson. They married later that month in Sydney, Australia. On February 13, 1997, their son, Prince Michael Jackson, Jr., was born in Los Angeles, California. The couple's second child, daughter Paris Michael Katherine Jackson, was born in 1998. Rowe filed for divorce from Jackson in October 1999.

Jackson and his brothers were elected to the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1997. Later that year another album, *Blood on the Dance Floor: HIStory in the Mix*, containing new versions of songs from *HIStory* along with five new songs, was released. The album received good reviews, and the world continued to be fascinated by the talent and career of Michael Jackson.

In 2000 Jackson's promoter sued him for \$21.2 million for backing out of two planned concerts the previous New Year's Eve. In 2001 Jackson, while delivering a lecture at Oxford University in England to promote his Heal the Kids charity, described his unhappy child-

hood and proposed a “bill of rights” for children that would provide for the right to an education “without having to dodge bullets.” Later that year Jackson was again elected to the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame, this time as a solo performer. Jackson also released a new album, *Invincible*, in October 2001.

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REGGIE JACKSON

Born: May 18, 1946

Wyncote, Pennsylvania

African American baseball player

Baseball great Reggie Jackson was inducted into the Baseball Hall of Fame in 1993. Jackson's hard-hitting, fast-footed style helped him lead two teams to five World Championships in only seven

years. Jackson made headlines with his self-centered remarks, hot temper, and colorful manner.

The beginnings

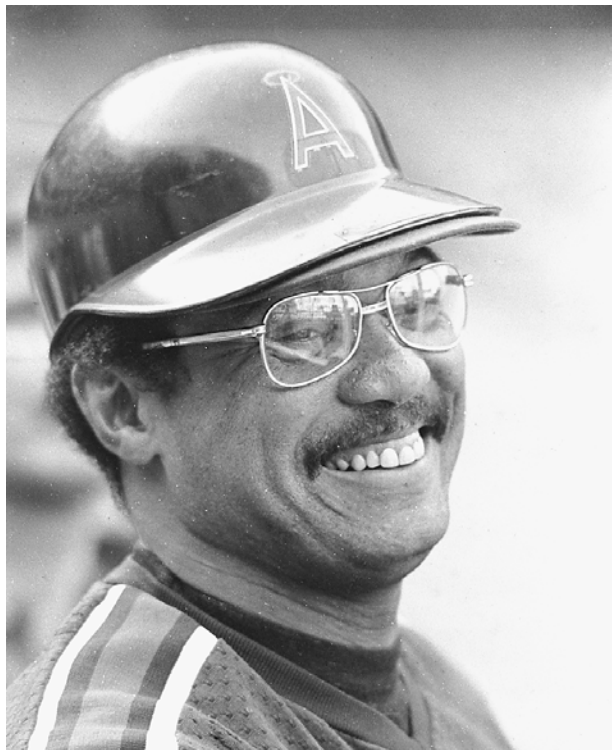
Reginald Martinez Jackson was born on May 18, 1946, in Wyncote, Pennsylvania, to Martinez and Clara Jackson. Jackson was one of six children of African American and Spanish descent. When his parents divorced, young Jackson moved with two of his siblings to live with his father in Cheltenham, Pennsylvania. Although his father always provided food for the family, Jackson recalls that they often “felt poverty.” His father, a tailor and a dry cleaner, was once a semi-pro baseball player in the Negro leagues, and he was largely responsible for inspiring and encouraging his talented son to pursue a career in baseball.

Education and a career with the Athletics

Jackson was an all-star athlete in track, on the football team, in basketball, and in baseball by the time he entered his senior year at Cheltenham High School. Reggie accepted a scholarship from Arizona State University. In his sophomore year he was chosen to the All-American first team in baseball. His performance caught the attention of Charles O. Finley, owner of the Kansas City Athletics, who offered Jackson a \$95,000 bonus. He left college after his sophomore year and entered the world of professional baseball.

In 1968 Jackson moved with the Athletics to their new home in Oakland, California. In his first full season in the majors he hit 29 home runs and drove in another 74 runs. But he also made a dozen outfield errors and struck out a near record-breaking 171 times.

JACKSON, REGGIE



Reggie Jackson.

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The following season, in 1969, he again held a record number of strikeouts with 142, but he hit a fantastic 47 home runs and led the American League in scoring with 123 runs.

Trouble at home and on the field

After the end of that season Jackson's performance declined. The increasing pressures of trying to keep up with his own home-run pace, as well as troubles in his marriage to wife Jenni, contributed to his temporary decline. Further, he failed to bargain successfully with Finley for a high increase in pay. His average and his homers dropped and his continued poor perform-

ance caused him to be benched for a portion of that season.

In the winter of 1970 and 1971 Jackson went to Santurce, Puerto Rico, to work with Frank Robinson. Robinson, a veteran player-manager, helped Jackson to improve his play. Robinson's tutoring helped him to work on his aggressive playing style while keeping his temper under control.

Jackson bounces back

The following season Jackson bounced back. He helped lead the Athletics to the American League Western Division title in 1971 with 32 home runs. In 1972 the Athletics won the title again. In the playoffs the Athletics beat the Detroit Tigers, with Jackson sliding into home plate to score the winning run in the final game. But he tore a muscle in one of his legs, which forced him to sit out of the World Series. Jackson watched as the Athletics defeated the Cincinnati Reds.

Voted the American League's Most Valuable Player (MVP) in 1973, Jackson batted .293 and led the league with 32 home runs. That year the team went on to win the World Series over the New York Mets. Leading the league in runs, he was chosen MVP in the World Series.

Leaves the Oakland Athletics

The Athletics won the World Series in 1974, defeating the Los Angeles Dodgers, with Jackson hitting 29 homers for the season. Finally, in 1975, after winning the American League Western Division title, Jackson ended his nine-year career with the Athletics. Finley traded Jackson to the Baltimore Orioles and he stayed with them for one season.

In 1977 Jackson signed a five-year contract as a free agent with the New York Yankees for \$300,000 a year. Once again he led his team to a World Series championship. The night of October 18, 1977, was one of Jackson's greatest triumphs. In that game, he became only the second player in history to hit three home runs in one game. In the entire series, he hit five home runs, a World Series record. Jackson was named MVP of the World Series that fall. He followed that spectacular season with a second World Series win against the Dodgers in 1978. His walloping World Series hitting earned him the title "Mr. October," as he could always be counted on to pull his team to victory in the Fall Classic.

The Yankees won the American League pennant in 1981. Jackson hit his tenth and final World Series home run that year. The California Angels signed Jackson in 1982, and he reached the 500-homer mark in 1984. Jackson returned to the Athletics in 1987 and retired at the end of the season. He placed sixth on the all-time major league career home run list, with 563 home runs during his twenty-one-year baseball career.

Retirement

After retiring Jackson worked briefly as a sports broadcaster for the Angels before moving on to coach for the Athletics. He then took a job with the Upper Deck Company, handling sales of trading cards and sports collectibles. On August 1, 1993, Reggie Jackson became the 216th inductee into the Baseball Hall of Fame. His achievements run to both extremes: ten World Series home runs; five World Championships; eleven American League Championships with three different

teams; along with holding the major league record for lifetime strikeouts at 2,597.

The Yankees retired Jackson's number "44" baseball uniform. During the summer of 1993, Jackson returned to the Yankees as a special assistant and advisor to the general partners. Jackson continued his work in California for the trading card company, and he was made director of new business at a California-based computer company for which he was already a spokesman. He is also an avid car collector and runs a charity called the Mr. October Foundation for Kids. He has one daughter, Kimberly.

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P. D.
JAMES

Born: August 3, 1920

Oxford, England

English author

Although British author P. D. James writes in the tradition of the British crime storyteller, because her stories also explore relationships, motivations



P. D. James.

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(reasons for behavior), and meanings of justice, some people think of her more as novelist than a mystery writer.

Early years

P. D. James was born Phyllis Dorothy James on August 3, 1920, in Oxford, England, the oldest of three children. Her parents, Sidney Victor, a tax official, and Dorothy May (Hone) James, moved to Cambridge, England, where Phyllis attended the Cambridge High School for Girls. Phyllis liked Cambridge and even used the city as the location for one of her books, *An Unsuitable Job for a Woman*.

Phyllis had to leave school at age sixteen to work. The family did not have much money and her father did not believe in higher education for girls. Dorothy worked in a tax office for three years. Later she found a job as an assistant stage manager for a theater group. In 1941 she married Ernest Connor Bantry White, an army doctor, and had two daughters, Claire and Jane.

When White returned from World War II (1939–45; a war fought mostly in Europe that pitted the Soviet Union, Great Britain, and the United States against Germany, Italy, and Japan), he suffered from a mental illness and was not able to get a job. James was forced to provide for the whole family until her husband's death in 1964. James studied hospital administration (management), and from 1949 to 1968 she worked for a hospital board in London, England.

Early novels

James was in her early forties when her first novel, *Cover Her Face*, was published in 1962. Her personal and professional experience helped to develop her powers of observation and thought. These aided her in both her description of police detective work and her portrayal of characters.

In 1968 James passed an examination that qualified her for a government job. She eventually worked in the Crime Department (1972–79) in London.

James's work served as a basis for her novels, giving them backgrounds for both medical and police procedures (official ways of working). The settings of several of her mysteries, including *A Mind to Murder* (1962), *Shroud for a Nightingale* (1971), and *Death of an Expert*

Witness (1977), are in medicine-related locations. In all of these novels she is just as interested in examining the relationships among people as she is in telling a mystery story.

James wrote some of her works in the tradition of the British crime storyteller as represented by such authors as Dorothy L. Sayers (1893–1957) and Agatha Christie (1891–1976). These are stories that have sometimes been referred to as “polite mysteries.” However, James also wrote about motivations, explored relationships between people, examined ideas about guilt and innocence, and questioned both the legal system and religion.

Experimentation with the mystery form

James’s work is distinguished (special) not only for its quality of plot, setting, and character, but also for its experimentation with the mystery form. Her first novel, *Cover Her Face* (1962), is similar to the stories written by Agatha Christie and Dorothy L. Sayers, but James began to experiment with new plots and new types of characters. She has written about questions of social privilege (special rights), politics, aesthetics (the theory of beauty and art), and theology (the study of religion). In her novel *The Children of Men* (1993) she experimented with science fiction.

Because James brought such new ideas to the mystery story, many people have chosen to classify James not as a crime author, but as a novelist. James herself says that she uses the detective story to comment on men, women, and society. In an interview published in the *New York Times* in 1986, she said that she would “sacrifice . . . the detective element” in her work if it would make a better novel.

Some critics are unhappy with James’s concern with the psychology (the science of

how the mind works) of her characters. These people would rather have a book that simply tells a basic detective story and gives the solution.

Even so, the qualities condemned by one group are prized by another. James is well respected and she has received many awards for her literary achievements.

Main characters

Most of James’s books involve one of two characters: Adam Dalgliesh, a police inspector in Scotland Yard (London’s police headquarters) and a published poet; and Cordelia Gray, a young private detective introduced in *An Unsuitable Job for a Woman* (1972). In addition to their own individual mysteries, Dalgliesh and Gray appear together in some of the books.

James today

To date P. D. James has published fourteen books and many short stories. She was awarded the Order of the British Empire (OBE) in 1983 and was made a baroness in 1991. She also served on the governor’s board of the British Broadcasting Company (BBC). She continues to have loyal fans who enjoy both a good mystery and a well-written novel.

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THOMAS JEFFERSON

Born: April 13, 1743

Shadwell, Virginia

Died: July 4, 1826

Monticello, Virginia

American president, philosopher, and statesman

The American philosopher and statesman Thomas Jefferson was the first secretary of state, the second vice president, and the third president of the United States. As president, Jefferson successfully negotiated, or bargained for the terms of, the Louisiana Purchase, which nearly doubled the country's size. A man of broad interests and activity, Jefferson remains an inspiration, for both his political accomplishments and his vision for America.

Young Jefferson

Thomas Jefferson was born in Shadwell, Virginia, on April 13, 1743. His father had been among the earliest settlers in this wilderness country, and his position of leadership transferred to his oldest son, along with five thousand acres of land. Jefferson became one of the best-educated Americans of his time. At the age of seventeen he entered the College of William and Mary, where he got exciting first glimpses of "the expansion of science, and of the system of things in which we are placed." He read widely in the law, in the sciences, and in both ancient and modern history, philosophy, and literature.

Jefferson was admitted to the bar, or an association for lawyers, in 1767 and established a successful practice. When the Amer-

ican Revolution (1795–83) forced him to abandon his practice in 1774, he turned these legal skills to the rebel cause. Jefferson's public career began in 1769, when he served as a representative in the Virginia House of Burgesses, the nation's first elected body of government. About this time, he began building Monticello. Perched on a wooded summit, the lovely home would become a lifelong occupation. Monticello, like the many other buildings Jefferson designed over the years, was an original, personal creation.

His philosophy

Jefferson rose to fame as an effective spokesman during the American Revolution, and his political thought would become the centerpiece of liberalism, or a movement to develop freedoms, in America. In challenging the British Empire, Americans like Jefferson came to recognize their claims to an independent nation.

Jefferson's most important contribution to the revolutionary debate was "A Summary View of the Rights of British America" (1774). He argued that Americans possessed the same natural rights to govern themselves as their ancestors had exercised when they moved to England from Germany. Writings like Jefferson's, began to stir support for a revolution. Soon there would be no way of avoiding war with Great Britain.

The Declaration of Independence

The Revolutionary War (1775–83) had begun by the time Jefferson took his seat in the Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia in June 1775. The Congress brought together many of America's prominent political figures of the time. It was chiefly as a legislative drafts-

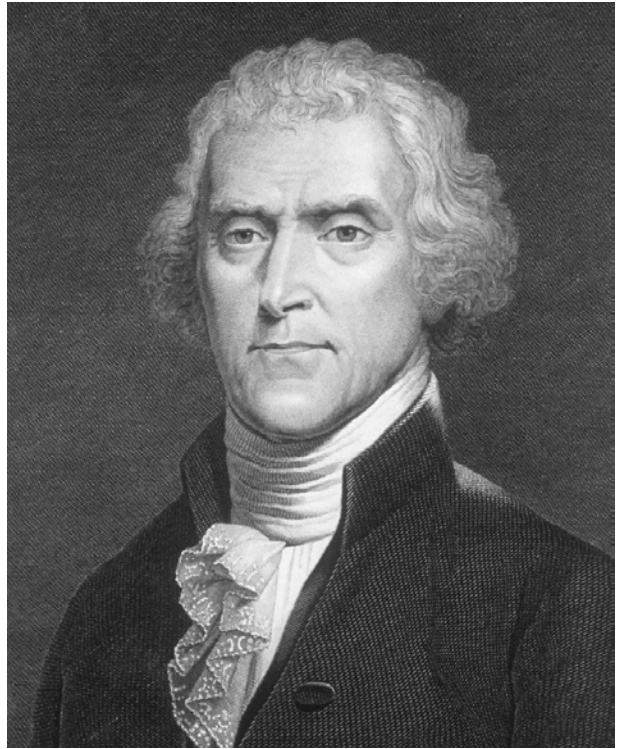
man, or legal writer, that Jefferson would make his mark, with his great work being the Declaration of Independence. Signed by most parties on July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence formally announced that the American colonies were separating from Great Britain. In June 1776 Jefferson was surprised to find himself at the head of the committee to prepare this paper. He submitted a draft to John Adams (1735–1826) and Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790), who suggested only minor changes.

Although many changes were made in the end, the declaration that emerged on July 4 bore the unmistakable stamp of Thomas Jefferson. The Declaration of Independence clearly set forth the problems with British rule and expressed a political philosophy and a national faith in only one paragraph. Here, for the first time in history, ideas were laid as the foundation of a nation. Natural equality, the inalienable (or not able to be taken away) rights of man, the freedom of the people, the right of revolution—these ideas gave the American Revolution high purpose.

In Virginia

Jefferson became Virginia's governor in June 1779 as the Revolutionary War had entered a new phase. The British decision to attack in the South would, if successful, have made Virginia the critical battleground. Jefferson struggled against huge odds to aid the southern army in defending its territory from the invading British.

Early in 1781 the British invaded Virginia from the coast, slashed through to Richmond, and put the government to flight. In May, General Charles Cornwallis (1738–1805) marched his army of British



*Thomas Jefferson.
Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery.*

soldiers into Virginia, and the government moved to the safer city of Charlottesville, Virginia. The Redcoats, or British soldiers, followed, and Jefferson was chased from Monticello.

Wounded by the criticism of his retreat, Jefferson decided to quit public service. A series of personal setbacks, including his wife's death in September 1782, plunged him into gloom. It appeared the life he had sought in his family, farms, and books was suddenly out of reach. That November he eagerly accepted congressional appointment to the peace commission in Paris. He never sailed, however, and wound up in Congress instead.

Service in Congress

In Congress, from November 1783 to the following May, Jefferson laid the foundations of national policy in several areas. He drafted the first regulation of government for the western territory, where free and equal states would be created out of the wilderness. Jefferson also took a leading part in creating foreign policy. The American economy rested on foreign commerce, but only France was open to trade with America. In 1784 he was appointed to a three-man commission (with Adams and Franklin) to negotiate treaties of commerce with the other European powers. He then replaced Franklin as the representative to France and spent the next five years in Europe.

On Jefferson's return to America in 1789, President George Washington (1732–1799) appointed him secretary of state. For the next three years he was chiefly engaged in fruitless negotiations with the European powers. With Spain he sought to secure free navigation of the Mississippi River through Spanish territory to the Gulf of Mexico. With Britain he sought the removal of English troops from the Northwest and settlement of issues left over from the peace treaty.

Developing political parties

By 1793, relations between the Federalist and Republican parties worsened. When war erupted between France and Britain in 1793, the opposing views of the parties toward these nations threatened American peace. Jefferson attempted to use American neutrality. As a neutral country, the nation would support neither side during the war. By doing this he hoped to force cooperation from Britain and to improve relations between the nations of the Western world.

Soon relations with France grew poor and severely damaged Jefferson's political system.

Jefferson gave up his post at the end of 1793, again determined to quit public life. But in 1796 the Republicans made him their presidential candidate against John Adams. Losing by only a slim margin, Jefferson became vice president.

President of the United States

Republicans doubled their efforts to elect the "man of the people" in the unusually bitter campaign of 1800. Jefferson topped Adams in the election and became president on March 4, 1801, in the new national capital, Washington, D.C. In his inaugural address, or speech after being sworn in as president, Jefferson brilliantly summed up the Republican ideas and appealed for harmony among all political parties.

Reform, or improving American society, was the order of the day. Working effectively with Congress, Jefferson restored freedom of the press, scaled down the army and the navy, ended all internal taxes, and began paying off the national debt. The Jeffersonian reformation was based on the economic plans of the government by reducing the means and powers of government. The reformation sought to further peace, equality, and individual freedoms, and to help solidify the American way of life.

The president's greatest triumph came in foreign affairs. When Spain turned over Louisiana and the port of New Orleans to France in 1800, this action posed a serious threat to American security. Jefferson skillfully managed this crisis with the Louisiana Purchase (1803), in which America gained an uncharted region of some 800,000 square

miles, doubling the nation's size, for \$11.25 million. Even before the treaty was signed, Jefferson planned an expedition to explore this country. The legendary Lewis and Clark expedition (led by Meriwether Lewis [1774–1809] and William Clark [1770–1838]) explored the rugged land gained in the Louisiana Purchase, and the expedition became a spectacular product of Jefferson's vision of westward expansion.

The second term

Easily reelected in 1804, Jefferson soon encountered troubles at home and overseas. His relations with Congress weakened as Republicans quarreled among themselves. Especially damaging was when former Republican leader John Randolph (1773–1833) and former vice president Aaron Burr (1756–1836) mounted a revolt in the west. But Jefferson crushed this and, with difficulty, maintained control of Congress.

With tension between America and France reaching a boiling point, Jefferson avoided war by installing an embargo, or a suspension of trade, in December 1807. On the whole, the embargo was effectively enforced and reasonably successful, but the mounting costs at home led to its reversal by Congress near the end of Jefferson's presidency.

Active retirement

In retirement Jefferson became the "Sage of Monticello." He maintained a large correspondence (wrote letters) and remained interested in a broad variety of intellectual pursuits. Unfinished business from the Revolution drew his attention, such as revision of the Virginia constitution and the gradual emancipation, or freedom, of slaves. Jef-

erson was the master planner of the University of Virginia in all its parts, from the grounds and buildings to the university rules, teachers, and subjects taught. He died at Monticello on the fiftieth anniversary of American independence, July 4, 1826.

Jefferson remains a major figure in the development of the United States. His accomplishments, both large and small, and his beliefs, both political and personal, remain inspiring to Americans, especially through his masterpiece, the Declaration of Independence.

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MAE
JEMISON

Born: October 17, 1956

Decatur, Alabama

African American physician and astronaut

Mae Jemison, a doctor, was the first African American woman to be selected for the National Aeronautic and Space Administration's (NASA's) astronaut training program and was the first African American woman to travel in space.

Early life and education

Mae Carol Jemison was born on October 17, 1956, in Decatur, Alabama, the youngest child of Charlie Jemison, a roofer and carpenter, and Dorothy (Green) Jemison, an elementary school teacher. Her parents were supportive and encouraging of all of their children's talents and abilities; Jemison's sister, Ada Jemison Bullock, became a child psychiatrist, and her brother, Charles Jemison, became a real estate broker. The family moved to Chicago, Illinois, when Jemison was three to take advantage of better educational opportunities there.

Throughout her early school years, Jemison spent many hours in her school library reading about all subjects related to science, especially astronomy. From a young age she was interested in space travel. During her time at Morgan Park High School, however, she became interested in pursuing a career in engineering. When she graduated in 1973 as an honor student, she entered Stanford University on a National Achievement Scholarship.

Jemison pursued a double major at Stanford, and in 1977 she received a bachelor's degree in chemical engineering and in African and Afro-American Studies. Just as she had been in high school, Jemison was very involved in outside activities, including dance and theater productions, and she served as head of the Black Student Union. Upon graduation she entered Cornell Univer-

sity Medical College to work toward a medical degree.

During her years at Cornell, Jemison found time to expand her horizons by visiting and studying in Cuba and Kenya and working at a Cambodian refugee camp in Thailand. When she obtained her degree in medicine in 1981, she received her on-the-job training at Los Angeles County/University of Southern California Medical Center and later established a general practice. For the next two and a half years, she was the area Peace Corps medical officer for Sierra Leone and Liberia, where she also taught and did medical research.

Following a dream

After her return to the United States in 1985, Jemison made a career change and decided to follow a dream she had had for a long time. In October of that year she applied for admission to NASA's astronaut training program. The selection process was delayed after the explosion of the space shuttle *Challenger* in January 1986, but when she reapplied a year later, Jemison was one of fifteen candidates chosen from a field of about two thousand. She became the first African American woman ever admitted into the astronaut training program.

After more than a year of training, Jemison became an astronaut with the title of science-mission specialist, a job that would make her responsible for conducting crew-related scientific experiments on the space shuttle. On September 12, 1992, with six other astronauts, Jemison flew into space aboard the *Endeavour* on mission STS-47. During her eight days in space, she conducted weightlessness and motion sickness experiments on the

crew and on herself before returning to Earth on September 20. Following her historic flight, Jemison noted that society should recognize how much both women and members of other minority groups can contribute if given the opportunity.

Honors and new challenges

In recognition of her accomplishments, Jemison received the 1988 Essence Science and Technology Award, was named Gamma Sigma Gamma Woman of the Year in 1990, received the Ebony Black Achievement Award in 1992, and received a Montgomery Fellowship from Dartmouth College in 1993. Also in 1992 a public school in Detroit, Michigan—the Mae C. Jemison Academy—was named after her. Jemison is a member of the American Medical Association, the American Chemical Society, and the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and she served on the Board of Directors of the World Sickle Cell Foundation from 1990 to 1992. She is also a committee member of the American Express Geography Competition and a board member of the Center for the Prevention of Childhood Malnutrition.

After leaving the astronaut corps in March 1993, Jemison established the Jemison Group, a company that seeks to research, develop, and market advanced technologies (scientific ways of achieving a practical purpose). She is also a professor at Dartmouth College, where she started the Jemison Institute for Advancing Technology in Developing Countries. Jemison also created The Earth We Share, a science camp for twelve- to sixteen-year-olds that helps improve students' problem-solving skills. She remains a popu-



Mae Jemison.

Courtesy of U.S. National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

lar public speaker, and in 2001 her autobiography, *Find Where the Wind Goes: Moments from My Life*, was published.

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JESUS OF NAZARETH

Born: 4 B.C.E.

Bethlehem, Judea

Died: c. 29 C.E.

Jerusalem, Judea

Judean religious leader

Jesus of Nazareth, also known as Jesus Christ, was the central personality and founder of the Christian faith.

Early years

Jesus first came to general attention at the time of his baptism (religious ritual performed shortly after a child's birth), just prior to his public ministry. He was known to those around him as a carpenter of Nazareth, a town in Galilee, and as the son of Joseph (John 6:42). Matthew and Luke report that Jesus was born in Bethlehem, famous in Jewish history as the city of David. They further report that he was miraculously (something that occurs that cannot be explained by nature's laws) born to the Virgin Mary, although they both curiously trace his kinship to David through Joseph, to whom Mary was engaged. It is likely that Jesus was born not later than 4 B.C.E., the year of King Herod's death. (The term Christ is actually a title, not a proper name; it comes from the Greek *Christos*, meaning the anointed, or the one chosen by God; in the Bible it is the Greek equivalent for the Hebrew word *Messiah*.)

Little is known of Jesus' childhood and youth. The letters of Paul are the earliest biblical records that tell about Jesus. But the four biblical Gospels by Matthew, Mark, Luke,

and John, although written later, used sources that in some cases go back very close to the time of Jesus. But about the year 28 or 29 C.E. his life interacted with the career of John the Baptist. Jesus heard John's preaching and joined the crowds for baptism in the Jordan River. Following his baptism Jesus went into the desert for prayer and reflection.

Galilean ministry

Returning from the desert, Jesus began preaching and teaching in Galilee. His initial declaration was both frightening and hopeful. It told people not to cling to the past, that God would overthrow old institutions and ways of life for a wonderful new future. This future would be especially welcomed by the poor, the powerless, and the peacemakers.

Jesus attracted twelve disciples to follow him. They were mainly fishermen and common workers. Of the twelve it seems that Peter, James, and John were closest to Jesus. Peter's home in Capernaum, a city on the Sea of Galilee, became a headquarters from which Jesus and the disciples moved out into the countryside. Sometimes he talked to large crowds, with the twelve to teach only them, or he might go off by himself for long periods of prayer.

The miracles

The records concerning Jesus report many miracles (an event that goes against the laws of nature and has suggested divine influence). For centuries most people in civilizations influenced by the Bible not only believed literally in the miracles but took them as proof that Jesus had supernatural (something that is not normal, possibly with a spiritual influence) power. Then, in an age

of reason and distrust, men often doubted the miracles and exposed the reports as dishonest. However, usually the Gospels report the healings as signs of the power of God and His coming kingdom.

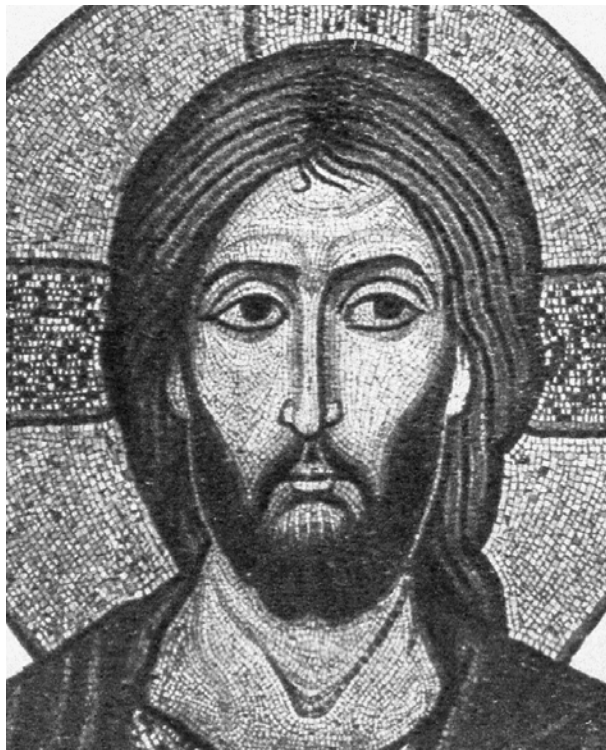
Teachings of Jesus

Jesus taught people in small groups or large gatherings; his lessons are reported in friendly conversations or in arguments with those who challenged him. At times he made a particularly vivid comment in the midst of a dramatic incident.

The starting point of Jesus' message, as already noted, was the announcement of the coming of the kingdom of God. Since this kingdom was neither a geographical area nor a system of government, a better translation may be "God's reign" (God being in existence everywhere).

The rest of Jesus' teaching followed from this message about the reign of God. At times he taught in stories or parables that described the kingdom or the behavior of people who acknowledged God's reign. At times he pronounced moral commandments detailing the demands upon men of a loving and righteous God. At times Jesus taught his disciples to pray: the words that he gave them in the Lord's Prayer are often used today.

To some people Jesus was a teacher, or rabbi. The healing ministry did not necessarily change that impression of him because other rabbis were known as healers. But Jesus was a teacher of peculiar power, and he was sometimes thought to be a prophet (a person who tells of things that have been made known to him or her by a divine power).



Jesus of Nazareth.

Passion week

On the day now known as Palm Sunday, Jesus entered Jerusalem, while his disciples and the crowds hailed him as the Son of David, who came in the name of the Lord. The next day Jesus went to the Temple and drove out the money-changers and those who sold pigeons for sacrifices, accusing them of turning "a house of prayer" into a "den of robbers." This act was a direct challenge to the small group of priests who were in charge of the Temple, and they clearly took offense to it. During the following days he entered into disagreements with the priests and teachers of religion. Their anger led them to plot to get rid of him, but they hesitated to

do anything in the daytime, since many people were gathered for the feast of Passover (a Jewish religious holiday).

On Thursday night Jesus had a meal with his disciples. This meal is now re-enacted by Christians in the Lord's Supper, the Mass, or the Holy Communion. After the meal Jesus went to the Garden of Gethsemane, where he prayed alone. His prayer shows that he expected a conflict, that he still hoped he might avoid suffering, but he expected to do God's will. There into the garden one of his disciples, Judas Iscariot, led the priests and the temple soldiers, who seized Jesus.

That same night Jesus' captors took him to a trial before the temple court, the Sanhedrin. Much evidence indicates that this was an illegal trial, but the Sanhedrin declared that Jesus was a blasphemer (a person who claims to be God or godlike) deserving death. Since at that time only the Roman overlords (supreme lords) could carry out a death sentence, the priests took Jesus to Pilate, the Roman governor of Judea.

Pilate apparently was reluctant to convict Jesus, since it was doubtful Jesus had disobeyed any Roman laws. Jesus, however, represented a threat to both the Sanhedrin and the Romans. Pilate thus ordered the crucifixion of Jesus. Roman soldiers beat him, put a crown of thorns on his head, and mocked him as a false king. Then they took him to the hill Golgotha ("the Skull"), or Calvary, and killed him. Pilate ordered a sign placed above his head: "King of the Jews." Jesus died and that same day (now known as Good Friday) was buried in a cave-like tomb.

The Resurrection

On Sunday morning (now celebrated as Easter), the Gospels report, Jesus rose from the

dead and met his disciples. Others immediately rejected the claim of the resurrection, and the debate has continued through the centuries.

The New Testament states very clearly that the risen Christ did not appear to everybody. Among those who saw Jesus were Cephas (Peter), the twelve disciples, "more than five hundred brethren at one time," James, and finally Paul. Other records tell of appearances to Mary Magdalene and other women and of a variety of meetings with the disciples. The four Gospels all say that the tomb of Jesus was empty on Easter morning. None of the records ever tells of an appearance of the risen Christ to anyone who had not been a follower of Jesus or (like Paul) had not been deeply disturbed by him.

The evidence is very clear that the followers of Jesus were absolutely convinced of his resurrection. The experience of the risen Jesus was so overwhelming that it turned their despair into courage. The disciples spread the conviction that he had risen, and they continued to tell their story at the cost of persecution and death. The faith in the resurrection (and later the rising up to the kingdom of God) of Jesus, despite differences in interpretation and detail, is a major reason for the rise and spread of the Christian faith.

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JIANG ZEMIN

Born: August 17, 1926

Yangzhou City, Jiangsu Province, China

Chinese political leader

Hand picked by Deng Xiaoping (1904–1997) to be built up as China's future leader, Jiang Zemin became general secretary of the Chinese Communist Party in 1989.

Early years

Jiang Zemin was born on August 17, 1926, in Yangzhou city, Jiangsu Province, a small town on the banks of the Chang River west of Shanghai, China. Jiang's father and uncle were educated men and his grandfather was a well-known painter who also practiced Chinese medicine. His father was a Communist (a person who supports a political system in which goods and services are owned and distributed by the government) and was most likely killed by Chinese

Nationalists during the civil war that tore apart China for nearly twenty years. Jiang joined the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in 1946 and graduated from the electrical machinery department of Jiaotong University in Shanghai the following year.

After the Communists took power in China in 1949, Jiang assumed several positions in Shanghai including the CCP committee secretary. In 1955 Jiang was sent to work as a trainee at the Stalin Automobile Factory in Moscow. After returning to China the following year, his career advanced steadily as an engineer and under the First Ministry of the Machine-Building Industry. From 1971 to 1979 he was appointed deputy director, later director, of the Foreign Affairs Bureau under the same ministry.

In 1982 Jiang was elected a member of the CCP Central Committee at the twelfth party congress. After 1985, Jiang's career improved greatly as he returned to Shanghai as its deputy party secretary, later secretary and mayor. In 1987 he entered the Politburo (top part of the Communist party) at the thirteenth CCP congress.

Positions under Deng Xiaoping

In June 1989, in the aftermath of the Tiananmen Square massacre, where hundreds of pro-democracy student protesters were killed by police forces, Jiang was appointed by Deng Xiaoping to the position of general secretary of the CCP. In November 1989 Jiang also took over the chairmanship of the Central Military Commission when Deng stepped down. Like Deng Xiaoping, Jiang supported economic reform (improvements), but did little where political reform was concerned.

After Jiang became party general secretary, he faithfully followed the new party line. For example, he blamed hostile outside forces for China's domestic political problems in the late 1980s. Likewise, he put a renewed emphasis on Communist loyalty over selecting and promoting party officials. He was prominently quoted in a *People's Daily* front-page commentary on June 24, 1990, as saying, "In choosing people, in assigning people, in educating people, we must take a revolutionary outlook as the prerequisite [required experience] to insure that party and government leaders at every level are loyal to Marxism." (Marxism, based on the ideas of Karl Marx [1818–1893] is the basis for communism.)

After Deng Xiaoping

Xiaoping officially retired in 1989, the same year of the Tiananmen Square massacre. Jiang did not have a base of support within the party or the army, and in 1990 still lacked leadership stature. But through his work as chairman of the CCP's Central Military Commission, Jiang eventually gained support and was named president of China in 1993.

Business ventures in China widened the class gap and only worsened the Chinese economy. In the 1990s, urban areas began experiencing increased crime and revolutionary groups sprang up. In the autumn of 1994, a militant group placed explosives on train tracks, derailing a train carrying troops from China's 13th Army. The explosion killed 170 and injured 190 people. Moreover, China's relationship with the rest of the world grew increasingly strained with widespread reports of human rights abuses, including prison labor and political imprisoning.

In April 1996, in an attempt to reestablish law and order, Jiang launched an anticrime drive, known as "Strike Hard" (Yanda in Chinese). Within six months Strike Hard had resulted in more than 160 thousand arrests and more than one thousand executions. Though many were critical of these actions, the government claimed it was well received by the Chinese citizens who were alarmed by the rising crime statistics. Jiang is also known for reclaiming the British colony of Hong Kong and attempting to convince Taiwan to follow.

In the spring of 2001, China-U.S. relations reached a fevered pitch, when a U.S. spy plane collided with a Chinese fighter jet. The U.S. plane was forced to land in China where the aircraft (loaded with highly secretive spy technology) and its crew were detained for eleven days. On July 18, 2001, Jiang met with Russian leader Vladimir Putin (1952–) in a summit (meeting) aimed at improving Russo-Chinese relations and slowing the United States' global influence. The two sides signed a statement to reduce missile defense, and improve trade between the two countries.

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JOAN OF ARC

Born: c. 1412

Domrémy, France

Died: May 30, 1431

Rouen, England

French heroine

The French national heroine Joan of Arc led a troop of French soldiers and served as a temporary focus of French resistance to English occupation in the last phase of the Hundred Years War (1339–1453), a war with England which caused severe hardship in France. Joan of Arc's place in history was finally solidified in the twentieth century when she was declared a saint.

A restless France

In 1392 the insanity of the French king, Charles VI (1368–1422), had begun the struggle between two factions (rival groups) to control the kingdom, the Burgundians and the Armagnacs. The leader of the Armagnacs, John the Fearless (1371–1419), Duke of Burgundy, finally assumed control, as both sides appealed for help to England. Henry V (1387–1422) of England invaded France in 1415 and delivered a shattering defeat upon the French. The English and Burgundians entered Paris in 1418, and the murder of John the Fearless in 1419 strengthened Burgundian hatred for the Armagnac faction.

In 1420 Charles VI, Henry V, and Philip the Good (1396–1467) of Burgundy agreed to the Treaty of Troyes. The treaty said that Henry was to act as regent, or acting ruler, for the mad Charles VI, marry Charles's daughter, then

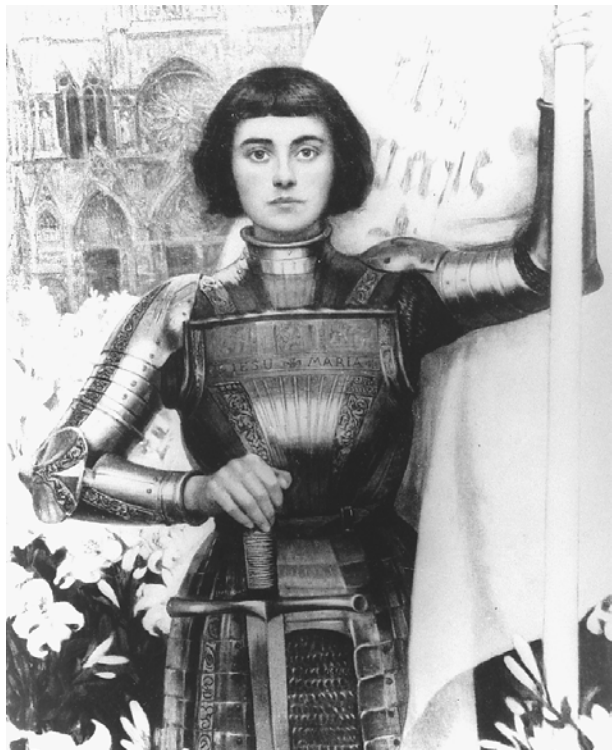
inherit the throne of France upon Charles's death. The treaty thus disinherited Charles VI's son, Charles VII (1403–1461). In 1422 both Henry V and Charles VI died, leaving Henry VI, the infant son of Henry, as king of both kingdoms. Henry VI, through his regent, the Duke of Bedford, ruled unchallenged in Normandy and the Île-de France. In the autumn of 1428 the English attacked Orléans, the key city to Charles's land. Charles, lacking in men and money, could do nothing. By the spring of 1429 the city appeared about to fall and with it the hopes of Charles VII.

Early life

Joan was born to a peasant family in Domrémy, France, a small town near Vaucouleurs, the last town in the east still loyal to Charles VII. "As long as I lived at home," she said at her trial in 1431, "I worked at common tasks about the house, going but seldom afield with our sheep and other cattle. I learned to sew and spin: I fear no woman in Rouen at sewing and spinning."

Some time in 1425 Joan began to have visions—"When I was thirteen, I had a voice from God to help me govern myself." The voice was that of St. Michael, who, with St. Catherine and St. Margaret, "told me of the pitiful state of France, and told me that I must go to succor [assist] the King of France." Joan twice went to Robert de Baudricourt, the captain of Vaucouleurs, asking for armor, a horse, and an escort to Charles VII at Chinon, but her request was denied both times. However, Joan was both persistent and persuasive, and when she went to de Baudricourt a third time he granted her request. She set out in February 1429, arriving eleven days later at Chinon.

JOAN OF ARC



Joan of Arc.

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Joan of Arc was once described: "This Maid . . . has a virile [man-like] bearing, speaks little, shows an admirable prudence [carefulness] in all her words. She has a pretty, woman's voice, eats little, drinks very little wine; she enjoys riding a horse and takes pleasure in fine arms, greatly likes the company of noble fighting men, detests [dislikes] numerous assemblies and meetings, readily sheds copious [many] tears, has a cheerful face. . . ." Joan appears to have been robust, with dark brown hair, and, as one historian remarked, "in the excitement which raised her up from earth to heaven, she retained her solid common sense and a clear sense of reality."

In April 1429 Charles VII sent her to Orléans as captain of a troop of men—not as leader of all his forces. With the Duke d'Alençon and Jean, the Bastard of Orléans (later Count of Dunois), Joan relieved the city, thus removing the greatest immediate threat to Charles and for the first time in his reign allowing him a military triumph.

Her mission

Although Charles VII appears to have accepted Joan's mission, his attitude toward her, on the whole, is unclear. He followed her pressing advice to use the relief provided by the success of Orléans to proceed to his coronation (crowning ceremony) at Reims, thereby becoming king in the eyes of all men. Charles VII was crowned at Reims on July 18, 1429. Joan was at his side and occupied a visible place in the ceremonies following the coronation.

From the spring of 1429 to the spring of 1430, Charles and his advisers were undecided on the course of the war. Joan favored taking the military offensive against English positions, particularly Paris. An attack upon Paris in September 1429 failed, and Charles VII entered into a treaty with Burgundy that committed him to virtual inaction.

From September 1429 to the early months of 1430, Joan appears to have been kept inactive by the royal court, finally moving to the defense of the town of Compiègne in May 1430. During a small battle outside the town's walls against the Burgundians, Joan was cut off and captured. She was a valuable prize. The Burgundians turned Joan over to the English, who prepared to try her for heresy, or having opinions that conflict with the beliefs of the church. Charles VII could do nothing.

The trial

Joan's trial was held in three parts. Technically it was an ecclesiastical (involving the church) trial for heresy (having religious beliefs that are against those held by the church), and Joan's judges were Pierre Cauchon (1371–1442), the bishop of Beauvais, and Jean Lemaitre, vicar of the inquisitor of France, or the religious assistant to the top judge in France. Both were aided by a large number of theologians (those that study religion) and lawyers who sat as a kind of consulting and advising jury.

From January to the end of March, the court investigated Joan's "case" and questioned witnesses. The trial itself lasted from April to nearly the end of May and ended with Joan's abjuration, or renouncing her faith. The trial was both an ecclesiastical one and a political one. Joan was charged with witchcraft and fraud, or a willful cheating. She was tested by being asked complicated theological (involving religious teachings) questions, and finally condemned (found guilty) on the grounds of persisting in wearing male clothing, a technical offense against the authority of the Church.

Joan's answers throughout the trial reveal her presence of mind, humility, wit, and good sense. Apparently Joan and her accusers differed about the nature of her abjuration, and two days after she signed it, she recanted, or withdrew her previous belief.

The third phase of her trial began on May 28. This time she was tried as a relapsed heretic, conviction of which meant "release" to the "secular arm," that is, she would be turned over to the English to be burned. Joan was convicted and she was burned at the stake in the marketplace of Rouen on May 30, 1431.

Rehabilitation and later legend

From 1450 to 1456 a reinvestigation of Joan's trial and condemnation was undertaken by ecclesiastical lawyers. On July 7, 1456, the commission declared Joan's trial null and void, thereby freeing Joan from the taint of heresy. The Joan of Arc legend, however, did not gather momentum until the seventeenth century. In spite of her legend, Joan was not canonized (declared a saint) until May 16, 1920.

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STEVE
JOBS

Born: February 24, 1955

San Francisco, California

American business executive, computer programmer, and entrepreneur

Computer designer and corporate executive Steve Jobs is cofounder of Apple Computers. With his vision of



Steve Jobs.

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affordable personal computers, he launched one of the largest industries of the past decades while still in his early twenties. He remains one of the most inventive and energetic minds in American technology.

Early life

Steven Jobs was born February 24, 1955, in San Francisco, California, and was adopted by Paul and Clara Jobs. He grew up with one sister, Patty. Paul Jobs was a machinist and fixed cars as a hobby. Jobs remembers his father as being very skilled at working with his hands.

In 1961 the family moved to Mountain View, California. This area, just south of Palo Alto, California, was becoming a center for electronics. Electronics form the basic elements of devices such as radios, televisions, stereos, and computers. At that time people started to refer to the area as “Silicon Valley.” This is because a substance called silicon is used in the manufacturing of electronic parts.

As a child, Jobs preferred doing things by himself. He swam competitively, but was not interested in team sports or other group activities. He showed an early interest in electronics and gadgetry. He spent a lot of time working in the garage workshop of a neighbor who worked at Hewlett-Packard, an electronics manufacturer.

Jobs also enrolled in the Hewlett-Packard Explorer Club. There he saw engineers demonstrate new products, and he saw his first computer at the age of twelve. He was very impressed, and knew right away that he wanted to work with computers.

While in high school Jobs attended lectures at the Hewlett-Packard plant. On one occasion he boldly asked William Hewlett (1931–2001), the president, for some parts he needed to complete a class project. Hewlett was so impressed he gave Jobs the parts, and offered him a summer internship at Hewlett-Packard.

College and travel

After graduating from high school in 1972, Jobs attended Reed College in Portland, Oregon, for two years. He dropped out after one semester to visit India and study eastern religions in the summer of 1974. In 1975 Jobs joined a group known as the

Homebrew Computer Club. One member, a technical whiz named Steve Wozniak (1950–), was trying to build a small computer. Jobs became fascinated with the marketing potential of such a computer. In 1976 he and Wozniak formed their own company. They called it Apple Computer Company, in memory of a happy summer Jobs had spent picking apples. They raised \$1,300 in start-up money by selling Jobs's microbus and Wozniak's calculator. At first they sold circuit boards (the boards that hold the internal components of a computer) while they worked on the computer prototype (sample).

Apple and the personal computer era

Jobs had realized there was a huge gap in the computer market. At that time almost all computers were mainframes. They were so large that one could fill a room, and so costly that individuals could not afford to buy them. Advances in electronics, however, meant that computer components were getting smaller and the power of the computer was increasing.

Jobs and Wozniak redesigned their computer, with the idea of selling it to individual users. The Apple II went to market in 1977, with impressive first year sales of \$2.7 million. The company's sales grew to \$200 million within three years. This was one of the most phenomenal cases of corporate growth in U.S. history. Jobs and Wozniak had opened an entirely new market—personal computers. Personal computers began an entirely new way of processing information.

By 1980 the personal computer era was well underway. Apple was continually forced to improve its products to remain ahead, as more competitors entered the marketplace. Apple introduced the Apple III, but the new

model suffered technical and marketing problems. It was withdrawn from the market, and was later reworked and reintroduced.

Jobs continued to be the marketing force behind Apple. Early in 1983 he unveiled the Lisa. It was designed for people possessing minimal computer experience. It did not sell well, however, because it was more expensive than personal computers sold by competitors. Apple's biggest competitor was International Business Machines (IBM). By 1983 it was estimated that Apple had lost half of its market share (part of an industry's sales that a specific company has) to IBM.

The Macintosh

In 1984 Apple introduced a revolutionary new model, the Macintosh. The on-screen display had small pictures called icons. To use the computer, the user pointed at an icon and clicked a button using a new device called a mouse. This process made the Macintosh very easy to use. The Macintosh did not sell well to businesses, however. It lacked features other personal computers had, such as a corresponding high quality printer. The failure of the Macintosh signaled the beginning of Jobs's downfall at Apple. Jobs resigned in 1985 from the company he had helped found, though he retained his title as chairman of its board of directors.

NeXT

Jobs soon hired some of his former employees to begin a new computer company called NeXT. Late in 1988 the NeXT computer was introduced at a large gala event in San Francisco, aimed at the educational market. Initial reactions were generally good. The product was very user-friendly, and had a

fast processing speed, excellent graphics displays, and an outstanding sound system. Despite the warm reception, however, the NeXT machine never caught on. It was too costly, had a black-and-white screen, and could not be linked to other computers or run common software.

Toy Story

NeXT was not, however, the end of Steve Jobs. In 1986 Jobs purchased a small company called Pixar from filmmaker George Lucas (1944–). Pixar specialized in computer animation. Nine years later Pixar released *Toy Story*, a huge box office hit. Pixar later went on to make *Toy Story 2* and *A Bug's Life*, which Disney distributed, and *Monsters, Inc.* All these films have been extremely successful. *Monsters, Inc.* had the largest opening weekend ticket sales of any animated film in history.

NeXT and Apple

In December of 1996 Apple purchased NeXT Software for over \$400 million. Jobs returned to Apple as a part-time consultant to the chief executive officer (CEO). The following year, in a surprising event, Apple entered into a partnership with its competitor Microsoft. The two companies, according to the *New York Times*, “agreed to cooperate on several sales and technology fronts.” Over the next six years Apple introduced several new products and marketing strategies.

In November 1997 Jobs announced Apple would sell computers directly to users over the Internet and by telephone. The Apple Store became a runaway success. Within a week it was the third-largest e-commerce site on the Internet. In September of 1997 Jobs was named interim CEO of Apple.

In 1998 Jobs announced the release of the iMac, which featured powerful computing at an affordable price. The iBook was unveiled in July 1999. This is a clam-shaped laptop that is available in bright colors. It includes Apple's AirPort, a computer version of the cordless phone that would allow the user to surf the Internet wirelessly. In January 2000 Jobs unveiled Apple's new Internet strategy. It included a group of Macintosh-only Internet-based applications. Jobs also announced that he was becoming the permanent CEO of Apple.

In a February 1996 *Time* magazine article, Jobs said, “The thing that drives me and my colleagues . . . is that you see something very compelling to you, and you don't quite know how to get it, but you know, sometimes intuitively, it's within your grasp. And it's worth putting in years of your life to make it come into existence.” Jobs has worked hard to translate his ideas into exciting and innovative products for businesses and consumers. He was instrumental in launching the age of the personal computer. Steve Jobs is truly a computer industry visionary.

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ELTON JOHN

Born: March 25, 1947

Pinner, Middlesex, England

English singer, songwriter, and humanitarian

Once famous for his flashy clothes and string of hit records, English rock musician Elton John has more recently become a humanitarian (one who works to promote human welfare) with a particular interest in supporting acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease that destroys the body's ability to fight infection) charities.

Early life

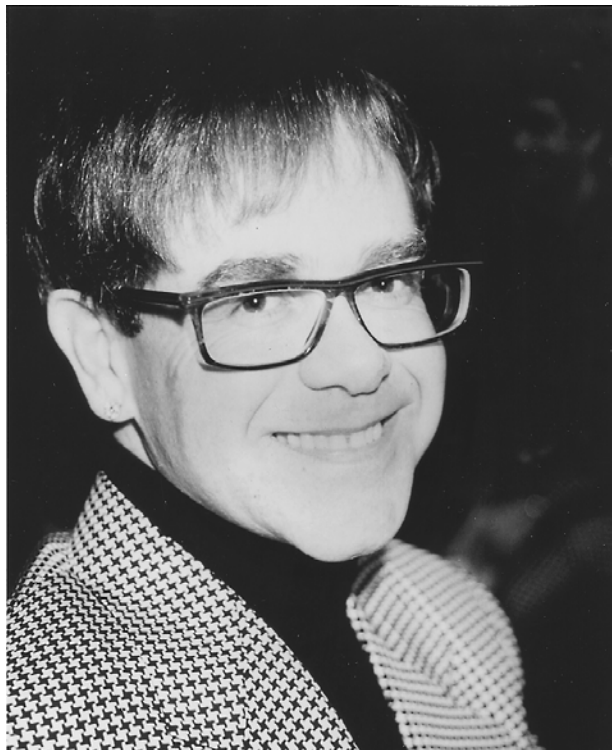
Elton John was born Reginald Kenneth Dwight on March 25, 1947, in the town of Pinner in Middlesex, England. An only child who was overweight and wore glasses, he was afraid of his father, a squadron leader (a ranking officer) with the Royal Air Force, whom he described as “very snobbish and sort of stiff.” His mother Sheila, on the other hand, brought home records that introduced him to rock music. John taught himself to play the piano at the age of four. He studied at the London Academy of Music but quit two weeks before graduation to pursue a musical career. He worked for a music publishing company and also played the piano in bars, later joining a band called Bluesology. He created his stage name as a combination of the middle name of Bluesology's singer, Long John Baldry, and the first name of the saxophone player, Elton Dean. Later in his life, John added the middle name Hercules.

Recording career begins

In 1968 John met Bernie Taupin (1950–), who became his long-term songwriting partner. John's first album, *Empty Sky* (1969), was a commercial failure. His second album contained “Your Song,” a hit in both the United States and England. In 1972 “Rocket Man” became his first number-one single in America. Other hits followed, including “Daniel” and “Crocodile Rock” from the album *Don't Shoot Me, I'm Only the Piano Player*. The album *Goodbye Yellow Brick Road* (1973) contained “Candle in the Wind,” written about actress Marilyn Monroe (1926–1962). That same year, John launched his own record label, Rocket Records.

John became famous for his oversize glasses and outrageous outfits. He was called the “Queen Mum of Pop.” He also enjoyed many expensive cars, large homes, and shopping sprees. In 1975 he starred as the Pinball Wizard in the film version of the rock opera *Tommy*. In 1976 a duet with Kiki Dee, “Don't Go Breaking My Heart,” became his first British number-one single. His popularity then began to decline after a series of less successful albums. Admitting that he was attracted to both men and women further damaged his popularity, and he began abusing alcohol and drugs.

Although John continued performing during the 1980s, his drug and drinking problems had caused him to lose his magic touch. While recording *Too Low for Zero* in 1983, John met Renate Blauel, a German-born, recording-studio worker. They were married on Valentine's Day (February 14) 1984. The British press attacked both the marriage and John, focusing on his sexual history. After less than five years, the couple agreed to divorce.



Elton John.

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Decides to help others

In the early 1990s John received treatment for alcoholism, drug abuse, and bulimia (an eating disorder). He admitted he was a homosexual (a man attracted to other men) and began to devote his energies toward helping others. Starting in 1990 he donated all of the profits from the sales of his singles to charity, mostly those associated with AIDS. In 1992 he established the Elton John AIDS Foundation. In 1994 he was elected to the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame, and in 1995 he won an Academy Award.

In 1997 John was shaken by the death of his friend, Diana, Princess of Wales (1961–

1997), in a car accident. John performed a new version of “Candle in the Wind” at her funeral. It sold more than thirty million copies after being released as a single. John donated all of the profits (more than \$47 million) to the charity established in Diana’s name. He was knighted by Queen Elizabeth II (1926–) for his achievements in music and contributions to charity.

Honors and awards

In 2000 the National Academy of Recording Arts and Sciences honored John as Person of the Year for his charity work. Later that year, John and lyric writer Tim Rice wrote songs for the Broadway musical *Aida* (which won a Tony award) and the film *The Road to El Dorado*. John also sued the accounting firm (a company paid to verify and calculate business dealings) PriceWaterhouseCoopers and his former manager for \$29 million, claiming they had stolen money from him.

John won a Grammy Award for best musical show album for *Elton John and Tim Rice’s Aida* in February 2001. At the award show he performed with rap artist Eminem (1972–), angering homosexual rights leaders who had criticized Eminem for his antigay lyrics. Later that year John released *Songs from the West Coast*, which many praised as a return to his “1970s sound.”

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JOHN PAUL II

Born: May 18, 1920

Wadowice, Poland

Polish pope

Karol Wojtyla, cardinal of Krakow, Poland, was elected the 263rd pope in 1978, the first ever of Slavic blood. He took the name John Paul II.

Childhood, education, and the priesthood

Karol Wojtyla was born May 18, 1920, in Wadowice, Poland, the second child of Karol Wojtyla Sr., an army sergeant, and Emilia (Kaczorowska) Wojtyla. His mother died when he was nine. After his mother died, Wojtyla became closer to his father, whom he credits as the source of his religious faith. His only sibling, a much older brother, Edmund (a physician), died four years later; and Karol Sr. died in 1942. These sorrows of early family life, along with the hard times that Poland experienced both prior to World War II (1939–45; a war fought in Europe, Asia, and elsewhere with Great Britain, the Soviet Union, France, the United States in 1941, and their allies on one side; Germany, Italy, and Japan on the other side) and throughout it, were bound to give an intelligent young man reason for serious thinking. Nonethe-

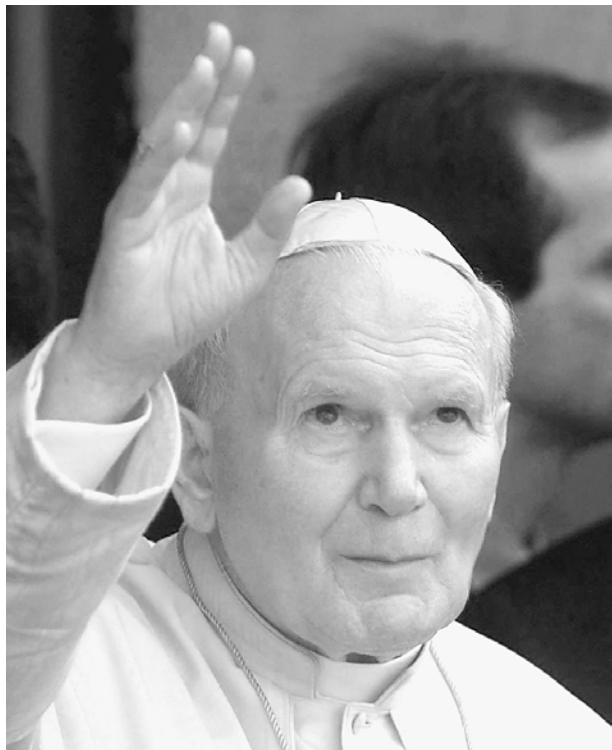
less, he has been remembered by his peers as a positive-thinking young man who was involved in sports such as soccer and skiing. In 1939 under Nazi (Adolf Hitler's [1889–1945] political party, which was in power in Germany from 1933 until 1945) occupation, he enrolled at Jagiellonian University in Krakow, and shortly thereafter he began secret studies for the priesthood. Publicly, however, he worked as a laborer in a quarry and a chemical factory.

After World War II, upon ordination to the priesthood on November 1, 1946, Wojtyla did pastoral work with Polish refugees in France and then did graduate studies at the Angelicum University in Rome. When he returned from these studies to his native Poland, Wojtyla was assigned to parish work and soon became well known for his successes in youth ministry. He was then assigned to teach ethics (the study of right and wrong) at the Catholic University of Lublin, and in 1958 he was officially named auxiliary bishop (member of the clergy who assists the bishop) of Krakow. In 1962, upon the death of Archbishop Baziak, Wojtyla became the vicar capitular, or administrative head, and in 1964 he became archbishop of Krakow. Paul VI made him a cardinal on May 29, 1967, in good part because of the fine impression he had made during the Second Vatican Council (1962–65).

Dealing with Communist Poland

In Poland Bishop Wojtyla was a rallying point for anti-Communist religious people. The bishop tended to show himself to be flexible, and his constant patriotism kept him from supporting any movements against the government that would cause the people or

JOHN PAUL II



Pope John Paul II.

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the land more harm than good. The Communist government came to look upon him as an enemy. First as bishop and then as archbishop and cardinal, Wojtyla fought for the Church's right to full religious practice and expression of opinion.

During the Second Vatican Council Wojtyla had contributed to the Catholic Church's increased appreciation of religious freedom, and he impressed many of the Church's leaders as a strong leader with first-hand experience of the possible effects of Communist rule.

When Pope Paul VI died in August 1978, and then scarcely a month later his successor, Pope John Paul I, died unexpectedly, the stage was set for a more dramatic occurrence. On October 16, 1978, on their eighth ballot, the cardinals assembled in Rome for the papal election chose Wojtyla as the first non-Italian pope in 455 years and the first Slavic pope ever. The new pope, who chose the name John Paul II in honor of his immediate predecessors (John XXIII, Paul VI, and John Paul I), quickly became a powerful figure.

Early years as pope

Pope John Paul II began a papal life of activity. In January 1979 he made his first trip abroad to Latin America. For nine days in June of 1979 he walked in the midst of Eastern Europe. At the end of September 1979 the pope flew first to Ireland and then to the United States, bringing his message of justice, peace, and the righteousness of traditional Catholic morality.

After these early trips Pope John Paul II became the most travelled pope in history. The personal danger of these trips became apparent to the world on May 13, 1981, when the pope was shot in Rome by a Muslim fanatic presumed to be employed by the Bulgarian Communist government. Not long after his return to health he began planning for future trips, telling his aides that his life belonged to God and the people.

The pope as teacher

Pope John Paul II's first encyclical (a letter that is written by the pope and addressed to the bishops of the church), *Redemptor Hominis* (Redeemer of Man), came in March

of 1979, only five months after his election. It was a piece that clearly expressed the pope's belief that the redemption (act of being saved) offered in Christ is the center of human history. The second encyclical, *Dives in Misericordia* (Rich in Mercy), appeared in December of 1980. Its theme was the mercy of God and the need for human beings to treat one another mercifully, going beyond strict justice to the love and compassion that human suffering ought to create.

The third encyclical, *Laborem Exercens* (Performing Work), appeared in September of 1981. This encyclical made it clear that the pope, for all his anti-Communism, is no friend of traditional capitalism. Moreover, the pope echoed the traditional Christian teaching that the goods of the earth come from the Creator God and are for all the Earth's people.

The pope's 1988 encyclical, *Sollicitudo Rei Socialis*, on social justice is thought to be one of his most substantial documents. It threaded a middle ground between capitalist and socialist positions, arguing for both proper economic development and placing the needs of the poor over the wants of the wealthy.

No compromise on moral issues

In 1992 the pope approved a new catechism. This was a detailed statement of belief meant to unite the Catholic Church. In October, John Paul published a large encyclical on moral issues somewhat inspired by the pedophilia (the sexual attraction of adults to children) crisis in the United States: *Veritatis Splendor* (The Resplendence of Truth), the burden of which was that the Christian moral life demanded heroism; certain traditional teachings never change; some acts (genocide, abuse of the innocent) are evil; and recent technical

developments in moral theology casting doubt on such traditional positions are unacceptable.

Pope embraced the people

John Paul departed from his customary encyclical, or papal letter, in 1994 to publish a book, *Crossing the Threshold of Hope*, which became an international bestseller. John Paul II reached out to the masses, the public responded, and *Time* magazine named him "Man of the Year." The book received wide critical acclaim for addressing today's major theological concerns and further established John Paul as a great intellect and teacher of our time.

John Paul issued a strong message in his 1995 encyclical, entitled *Evangelism Vitae* (Gospel of Life). He confronted the issues of abortion, assisted suicide, and the death penalty, making a plea to Roman Catholics to "resist crimes which no human law can claim to legitimize." A second encyclical, entitled *Ut Unum Sint* (That They May Be One), was released in 1995. In this letter, for the first time in Church history, he acknowledged and apologized for past sins and errors committed in the name of the Church. Admitting that painful things have been done that harmed Christian unity, he accepted responsibility and asked for forgiveness in the hope that Christians could have "patient dialogue."

Church business claimed John Paul's attention in 1996. Several major changes were instituted at his urging; for instance, he ruled that the next pope will be elected by an absolute majority (more than 50 percent).

In March 1998 John Paul issued "We Remember: A Reflection on the Shoah," or Holocaust—a papal apology for the Catholic

JOHNSON, LYNDON B.

Church's failure to act against Nazi atrocities during World War II. He also continued his travels despite the increased effects of Parkinson's disease. He was the first modern pope to enter a synagogue or to visit an Islamic country.

On March 12, 2000, John Paul asked for forgiveness for many of his church's past sins, including its treatment of Jews, heretics (those who deny fundamental beliefs of the church), women, and native peoples. This was believed to be the first time in the history of the Catholic Church that one of its leaders sought such a sweeping pardon.

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LYNDON B. JOHNSON

Born: August 27, 1908
Stonewall, Texas

Died: January 22, 1973

Austin, Texas

American president

As the thirty-sixth president of the United States, Lyndon B. Johnson created new programs in health, education, human rights, and conservation. He was also aggressive in the fight against poverty, beginning what he called the "War on Poverty."

Early life

Lyndon Baines Johnson was born on August 27, 1908, in Stonewall, Texas. Johnson's father, Sam Ealy Johnson, Jr., had served in the Texas legislature. After he lost a large sum of money trading cotton, he struggled to raise his two sons and three daughters. Johnson's mother was a gentle woman who encouraged her children to love books and gave them a sense of duty and responsibility. Johnson graduated from Southwest State Teachers College in San Marcos, Texas, with a bachelor's degree. While in college, he had combined his studies with a job teaching Mexican American children.

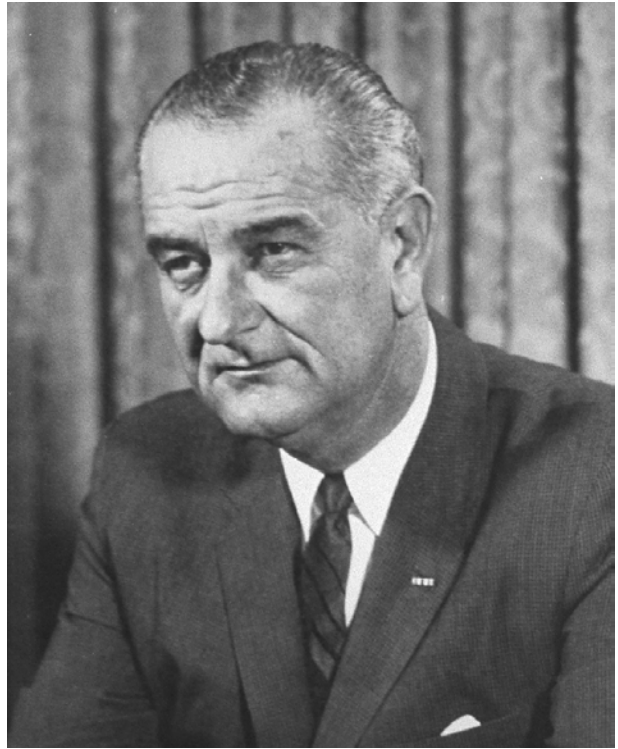
In 1931 Johnson went to Washington, D.C., and worked as secretary to Texas congressman Richard Kleberg (1887–1955). Almost immediately Johnson's talent for attracting affection and respect became visible. He was elected speaker of the "Little Congress," an assembly of congressional secretaries on Capitol Hill. On November 17, 1934, he married Claudia (Lady Bird) Taylor (1912–) of Karnak, Texas. With her, Johnson found constant strength, love, and support. At age twenty-seven Johnson returned to Texas to become the state director of the National Youth Administration.

Rising through Congress

In 1937 the congressman from Texas's Tenth District died suddenly. When a special election was called to select a replacement, Johnson joined a race crowded with seven other candidates. To the amazement of many long-standing politicians, the twenty-eight-year-old Johnson won the race. In 1941 he ran for a Senate seat but lost by a small margin. That December he became the first member of Congress to enter active military duty in World War II (1939–45; a war in which the Allies—France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, China, and from 1941 the United States—fought against the Axis powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan). He joined the navy and in 1942 received the Silver Star for his contribution to a bombing mission over New Guinea. When President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945) ordered all congressmen in the military back to the capital in 1942, Johnson reentered the House.

In 1948 Johnson finally won election to the Senate. The other senators soon recognized that he was not an ordinary first-term senator. He was knowledgeable about every item that was brought before the Senate. In January 1951 Johnson was named Democratic “whip” (assistant minority leader). In 1953, when the post of minority leader in the Senate opened up, Democratic senators chose Johnson to take charge. After the Democrats won a majority of seats in both houses in the congressional elections of 1954, Johnson became the youngest man ever to serve as majority leader.

At that time, Johnson's leadership became visible to the nation. He led the first civil rights bill in eighty-two years through



Lyndon B. Johnson.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

the Senate. Then in 1958, while representing the United States at the United Nations, he called for the peaceful exploration of outer space. He uncovered waste in defense spending and began an investigation. In 1960 Johnson briefly ran against John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) for the Democratic presidential nomination. Kennedy later chose Johnson as his vice presidential running mate. While some Kennedy supporters complained, experts later agreed that Johnson's tireless campaigning in Texas and the South led Kennedy to victory in the 1960 election.

Serving as vice president

Johnson had many important assignments as vice president. One of his tasks was to improve the growing U.S. space program, which had been overshadowed by explorations and new discoveries that had been made by the Soviet Union. Regarding civil rights, as chairman of the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity forces, he surprised many critics by putting constant pressure on American businesses. The committee had been created by President Kennedy in 1961 to enforce an executive order prohibiting discrimination (unequal treatment) based on race in government employment.

Then on November 22, 1963, President Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas, Texas. The next day, aboard the plane *Air Force One* at Love Field in Dallas, Johnson took the presidential oath of office. Giving orders to take off seconds later, the new president flew back to Washington to take command of the government while the nation grieved for its fallen leader.

Filling the presidency

Five days after taking office, President Johnson appeared before a joint session of Congress. Speaking firmly, he pledged, "We shall continue." The new president, meeting around the clock with staff, cabinet members, and congressmen, helped pass important legislation that had been put before Congress by President Kennedy but had been held up in various committees of both houses. Johnson especially pushed the passage of a civil rights bill that was much stronger than any that had come before, which had been of great importance to Kennedy. On July 2, 1964, Johnson

signed the Civil Rights Act, which prohibits discrimination (unequal treatment based on race) and segregation (separation based on race) in public places, employment, and voting, into law.

Six months after becoming president, Johnson announced his plan called the "Great Society." The areas he emphasized were health and education; urban problems such as pollution, housing, and transportation; civil rights; and preservation of natural resources. Johnson took his programs to the nation during his campaign for the 1964 election. Meanwhile, American involvement in the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war in Vietnam in which South Vietnam was fighting against a takeover by Communist North Vietnam) became an issue. Johnson's opponent, Senator Barry Goldwater (1909–1998), spoke against Johnson's approach to domestic problems and also suggested that the use of force against North Vietnam should be increased. Johnson traveled the nation and convinced voters that they could not afford to drive him from office. He won by the widest margin in any presidential election in American history.

Administration achievements

After his huge victory President Johnson began a massive legislative program. Between 1965 and 1968 more than 207 bills were passed by Congress. During Johnson's presidency education and health spending were increased. Within three years of the passage of the Voting Rights Act in 1965, which made discrimination in voting illegal, nearly one million African Americans registered to vote in the South. Most importantly, the Johnson presidency was the strongest era of national

prosperity (economic success), marked by more than eighty-five months of economic growth. The wages of factory workers increased, millions of workers were brought under minimum-wage protection, total employment increased, and the unemployment rate (the number of people who are unemployed) dropped to its lowest point in more than a decade.

The president also made important gains in foreign affairs. U.S. involvement in Cyprus and the Congo prevented the outbreak of wars in those countries. In the Dominican Republic, the threat of a Communist takeover was ended by an overwhelming show of force by the United States and Latin American countries. As a result, a democratic government and free elections were put back into place in the Dominican Republic, and U.S. troops left the country soon after. Talks on an outer space treaty with the Soviet Union were held, and in June 1967 the president met with Soviet leader Alexei Kosygin (1904–1980).

Vietnam problem

Johnson devoted the bulk of his time and effort to dealing with the Vietnam War. All three presidents that served before Johnson had declared that the security of the United States was involved in protecting South Vietnam from a communist takeover by North Vietnam. However, there was much disagreement in the United States over the way this problem should be solved. Some critics claimed the situation in Vietnam was a civil war, not an invasion, and they opposed U.S. involvement. In 1965 the United States increased its military support of South Vietnam and sent over more American troops. By 1968 many people who were against U.S.

involvement in the war were calling on the Johnson administration to remove U.S. troops from Vietnam.

Bothered by increasing criticism, yet determined to end the war and begin serious peace talks, President Johnson startled the nation and the world on March 31, 1968, by stating that he would not run for election to another term as president. Johnson said that it was so important to resolve the Vietnam situation peacefully that even his own political future should not stand in the way of this goal. He said that he would not seek reelection so he could spend the rest of his days in office working on a settlement. On May 11, 1968, it was announced that peace talks would begin in Paris, France. Then in November 1968 the president declared that all bombing of North Vietnam would end.

At the end of Johnson's presidency, he retired to his ranch near San Antonio, Texas, where he became interested in the care and sale of his cattle. On January 22, 1973, Johnson suffered a heart attack while lying down to take a nap, and he died later that afternoon.

Lyndon Johnson was one of America's most experienced and politically skilled presidents. He tried to improve the quality of life for people living in the United States and to help new and small nations develop their own forms of government without fear of invasion from their more powerful neighbors.

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MAGIC JOHNSON

Born: August 14, 1959

Lansing, Michigan

African American basketball player

Magic Johnson was one of professional basketball's most popular stars. He won five championships with the Los Angeles Lakers in the 1980s before he was forced to retire after contracting the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), the virus that causes acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS), a disease that destroys the body's ability to fight off infection.

Early years

Earvin Johnson Jr. was born on August 14, 1959, in Lansing, Michigan, the fourth of Earvin and Christine Johnson's seven chil-

dren. His father worked at an auto factory during the day and hauled trash at night to make extra money. Earvin Jr. worked at several jobs, including helping his father, but his first love was basketball. In 1977 Johnson and his Everett High School team won the state championship. His passing and ball-handling skills won him the nickname "Magic." He then attended Michigan State University. In his second year, Michigan State won the national college basketball championship by defeating Indiana State University, a team led by future Boston Celtics star Larry Bird (1956-). Johnson scored twenty-four points and was chosen Most Valuable Player (MVP).

Immediate success

Johnson was selected first in the 1979 National Basketball Association (NBA) draft by the Los Angeles Lakers. He became the first rookie to start in an NBA All-Star game. The Lakers went on to defeat the Philadelphia 76ers for the NBA championship, and Johnson became the youngest player ever to be named playoff MVP. At six feet nine inches, Johnson became the first big man to excel at point guard, a position usually reserved for smaller players. He became one of the most popular players in the league.

During the 1981-82 season Laker head coach Paul Westhead designed an offense that featured center Kareem Abdul-Jabbar (1947-). The change upset Johnson, who asked to be traded. Westhead was soon replaced by Pat Riley, under whom Johnson became one of the league's best all-around players. In Johnson's first season with Riley, the Lakers won another championship, with Johnson again winning the playoff MVP award. In 1985 the Lakers won their third

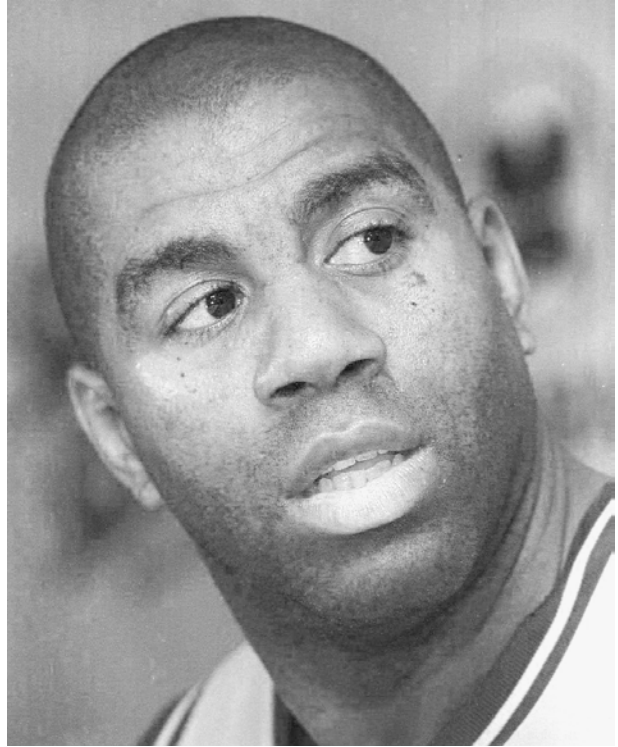
NBA title, defeating Bird and the Boston Celtics. The Lakers also won championships in 1987 and 1988.

During Johnson's twelve years with the Lakers, the team won five championships. He was chosen playoff MVP three times. He was a twelve-time All-Star and the 1990 All-Star game MVP. He averaged 19.7 points per game in 874 games, pulled down 6,376 rebounds, and had 1,698 steals. During the 1990–91 season he broke Oscar Robertson's (1938–) assist record, finishing the season with a total of 9,921. In October 1996 he was named one of the fifty greatest players in the history of the NBA.

Tragic discovery

In November 1991, during a physical examination, Johnson found out that he was a carrier of the HIV virus, which causes AIDS. Johnson admitted that his lifestyle as a sports celebrity included many sexual encounters. However, he never suspected that he might contract HIV, which he thought was limited to gay, or homosexual, men (men who are attracted to other men). Doctors advised Johnson to quit basketball immediately in order to protect his health.

Johnson immediately became a voice for AIDS awareness. "I want [kids] to understand that safe sex is the way to go," Johnson told *People* magazine. "Sometimes we think only gay people can get it [HIV], or that it's not going to happen to me. Here I am. And I'm saying it can happen to anybody, even Magic Johnson." Johnson was appointed to the National Commission on AIDS by President George H. W. Bush (1924–) but resigned to protest what he considered to be the president's lack of support for AIDS research.



Magic Johnson.

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Johnson also coauthored *What You Can Do to Prevent AIDS*.

Unable to let go

In January 1992 Johnson came out of retirement to play in the 1992 NBA All-Star game, scoring 25 points and being named the game's MVP. That summer Johnson went to Barcelona, Spain, as a member of the United States basketball team in the Summer Olympics. Referred to as the "Dream Team" by writers, the U.S. team, packed with NBA stars including Bird and Michael Jordan (1964–), easily won the gold medal. Fans were saddened, however, because they

believed the careers of both Johnson and Bird were over.

Johnson could not let go of basketball. He announced his return to the NBA shortly before the 1992 season; after five preseason games he retired again, saying he wanted to stay healthy for his family. Johnson remained active in basketball, purchasing an ownership share in the Lakers and forming a team that played games around the world to benefit charities. He became a vice-president of the Lakers and took over as head coach of the team for the end of the 1992–93 season. In early 1996 Johnson again returned to play for the Lakers. By May, however, he announced his retirement—this time for good.

Successful businesses

Johnson enjoyed all-star success as a businessman. He started paying attention to his money early in his career, after watching fellow teammate Abdul-Jabbar lose millions to crooked business advisers. By 1996 he had a net worth of more than one hundred million dollars. Like other star athletes, Johnson endorsed (appeared in ads giving support for) products and gave speeches for big fees. He led his Magic Johnson All-Stars around the world, playing exhibition games against foreign basketball teams for large profits. He also briefly hosted a television talk show.

One of Johnson's major investments was in large-scale property development. Among his successes were movie theaters and shopping centers in inner-city areas where no one else wanted to invest. In June 1995 Johnson opened the twelve-screen Magic Theatres in a mostly black section of Los Angeles. In 1997 Johnson opened another movie complex in Atlanta, Georgia. Magic movie houses were

under construction in other cities, including Brooklyn, New York, where the historic Loews Kings Theater was restored at a cost of \$30 million.

Living with HIV

In September 1991, just before Johnson learned he had HIV, he married longtime friend Earletha “Cookie” Kelly. They had a son in 1993 and adopted a daughter in 1995. Johnson also had a son from another relationship who spent the summers with him. Johnson continued to take medicine, eat right, and exercise. As recently as September 2002, his doctors said he is free of AIDS symptoms. Doctors credit Johnson's exercise habits and his use of powerful drugs; Johnson's wife Cookie has credited God, stating, “The Lord has definitely healed Earvin. Doctors think it's the medicine. We claim it in the name of Jesus.”

Johnson showed no signs of slowing down. He became the owner of several Starbucks coffee shops, started his own record company (Magic Johnson Records), and purchased Fatburgers, the popular Los Angeles hamburger chain. He also continued to speak out on AIDS and raise money for research. In 2002 he was elected to the Pro Basketball Hall of Fame.

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SAMUEL JOHNSON

Born: September 18, 1709

Litchfield, Staffordshire, England

Died: December 13, 1784

London, England

English author and lexicographer

The writings of the English author and lexicographer (an author or editor of a dictionary) Samuel Johnson express a deep respect for the past combined with an energetic independence of mind. The mid-eighteenth century in England is often called the "Age of Johnson."

Early life

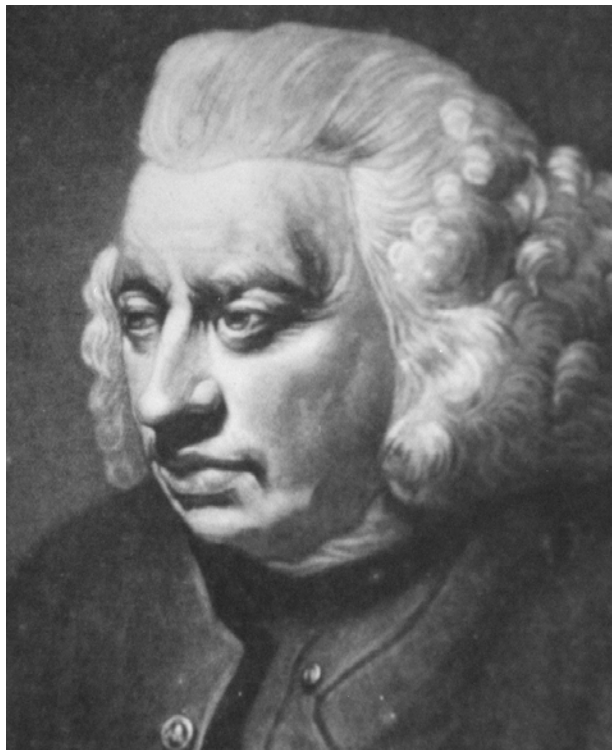
Samuel Johnson was born in Litchfield, Staffordshire, England, on September 18, 1709, the son of Michael Johnson and Sarah Ford. His father was a bookseller, and Johnson owed much of his education to the fact that he grew up in a bookstore. Johnson was plagued by illness all his life. As a child he suffered from scrofula (an infection of the face that causes scars), smallpox, and partial deafness and blindness. One of his first memories was of being taken to London, England, where he was touched by Queen Anne (1665–1714) (the touch of the ruler was then thought to be a cure for scrofula).

Johnson was educated at the Litchfield Grammar School, where he learned Latin and Greek. He later studied with a minister in a nearby village from whom he learned a valuable lesson—that if one is to master any subject, one must first discover its general principles, or, as Johnson put it, "but grasp the Trunk hard only, and you will shake all the Branches." In 1728 and 1729 Johnson spent fourteen months at Pembroke College, Oxford. Too poor and embarrassed by his poverty, Johnson could not complete the work for a degree. Johnson supported himself with teaching jobs after his father died in 1731. In 1735 he married Elizabeth Porter, a widow some twenty years older than him. Still trying to find a way to make a living, Johnson opened a boarding school, which had only three pupils. One of them was David Garrick (1717–1779), who would eventually become a famous actor.

Making his name

In 1737 Johnson went to London to work for Edward Cave, the editor of the *Gentleman's Magazine*. Parliament did not then permit reports of its debates, and Cave published a column called "Debates in the Senate of Lilliput"—the name is taken from the first book of Jonathan Swift's *Gulliver's Travels*—for which Johnson, among others, wrote re-creations of actual parliamentary speeches. Johnson also published *London, a Poem* (1738) and *The Vanity of Human Wishes* (1749), two "imitations" of the Roman writer Juvenal (c. 60–c. 140). In 1749 Johnson completed *Irene*, a play in verse, which was produced by Garrick and earned Johnson £300 (about \$436).

In the early 1750s Johnson, writing at the rate of two essays a week, published two



Samuel Johnson.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

collections, *The Rambler* (1750–52) and *The Adventurer* (1753–54). He also continued work on a dictionary of the English language, a project he had begun in 1746 with the help of six assistants. The project was finally completed in 1755. Although he received help from others, Johnson's *Dictionary* is probably the most personal work of its kind that will ever be put together. His own definition of *lexicographer* was a "writer of dictionaries; a harmless drudge," yet the work bears his personal stamp: it is notable for its precise definitions and for its examples, which draw on Johnson's reading of two hundred years of English literature.

Years of success and fame

Johnson's *Rasselas, Prince of Abissinia*, a moral fable (a mythical story that usually teaches a lesson about life) concerned with an innocent young man's search for the secret of happiness, appeared in 1759. The work was immediately successful; six editions and a number of translations appeared during Johnson's lifetime. In 1762 Johnson accepted a yearly pension of £300 from King George III (1738–1820). A year later he met James Boswell (1740–1795), the son of a Scottish judge. Boswell became Johnson's devoted companion and eventually wrote the great biography of his hero.

In 1765 Johnson met Henry Thrale, a well-to-do brewer, and in the Thrales' home Johnson found an escape from the solitude he had experienced since his wife's death in 1752. In 1765 Johnson published an eight-volume edition of the works of William Shakespeare (1564–1616). In 1773 James Boswell persuaded Johnson to join him in a tour of Scotland, and both men recorded their trip—Johnson's *A Journey to the Western Islands of Scotland* (1775) and Boswell's journal.

Johnson's last great work, the ten-volume *Prefaces, Biographical and Critical, to the Works of the English Poets* (better known as the *Lives of the Poets*), was completed when he was seventy-two. It is a series of biographical and critical studies of fifty-two English poets. Johnson was saddened in his last years by the death of his old friend Dr. Robert Levett, by the death of Thrale, and by a quarrel with Thrale's widow, who had remarried with, what seemed to Johnson, inappropriate haste. Johnson died on December 13, 1784, in his house in London, and he was buried in Westminster Abbey.

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AL JOLSON

Born: May 26, 1886

Srednike, Lithuania

Died: October 23, 1950

San Francisco, California

Lithuanian-born American entertainer, vaudeville performer, actor, and singer

Al Jolson was a famous singer and film actor. He starred in the first all-sound movie, *The Jazz Singer*.

Early life

Al Jolson (Asa Yoelson) was born on May 26, 1886, in Srednike, Lithuania. Jolson's family came to the United States in 1894, settling in Washington, D.C. Several factors in

Jolson's youth influenced his career, including his religious Jewish upbringing, the death of his mother when he was ten, and his father's work as a cantor (a singer of religious music in a synagogue). Jolson acquired a love of singing from his father, but he did not want to use his voice in the synagogue. Instead, he and his brother Harry sang on street corners to earn money. Jolson also attended the theater whenever possible and discovered he loved to perform.

Develops his own style

In 1900 Jolson left Washington, D.C., for New York. His first theater job was in a show called *Children of the Ghetto*. He also sang in a circus before teaming up with his brother to play vaudeville (traveling stage entertainment consisting of various acts). They toured as Jolson/Palmer/Jolson (Palmer was the third member of the team) with an act called *The Hebrew and the Cadet*, in which Harry Jolson and Palmer did a comedy routine and Al Jolson sang. Jolson was best when he was alone on stage, where he could more easily relate to the audience.

Jolson then left his brother's act and spent several years playing small clubs in San Francisco, California. One day, to liven up his act, he went on stage in blackface (with his face made up to resemble an African American) and sang "Rosey My Posey" in a Southern accent. In 1909 he was given a job in producer Lew Dockstader's *Minstrel Show*, and in 1911 he was hired for Broadway producer Lee Shubert's new show, *La Belle Paree* (1911), in which he sang "I Want a Girl Just Like the Girl That Married Dear Old Dad." Jolson's singing and stage manner were different from anything the audience had seen. He took a song



Al Jolson.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

and applied to it a loose jazz rhythm, rolling his eyes with a sly grin on his blackened face. He also appealed to the feelings of the audience with his sentimental song deliveries.

Star power

Although Jolson did not receive star billing until 1914 in *Dancing Around*, the audiences clearly came to see *him*. The Shuberts knew this and signed Jolson for a seven-year contract at the Winter Garden Theatre on Broadway. He played to overflowing houses in such shows as *Robinson Crusoe, Jr.* (1916), *Sinbad* (1918), and *Bombo* (1921). Most of these shows had no script and no scheduled list of

songs. Jolson would come out on stage after the final act to talk to the audience and sing what pleased him. After each song he told the audiences, "You ain't heard nothing yet."

Jolson became known for songs like "Sonny Boy," composer George Gershwin's (1898–1937) "Swanee," and especially "My Mammy." In "Mammy" he would go down on one knee, and with tears in his eyes he would speak to "mother," telling her he'd "walk a million miles" just to see her. At the end he would get up and sing the last chorus with his hands spread wide and his face tilted upward.

Goes to Hollywood

Jolson worked constantly, doing a tour of his one-man show, then a vaudeville tour, and then a Sunday theater series. Finally he went to Hollywood to make movies. In October 1927 Warner Brothers presented the world's first talking-picture feature, *The Jazz Singer*. The film, the story of a rabbi's son who becomes an actor against his father's wishes, was a great success. People assumed the movie was based on Jolson's own life, a myth that he encouraged.

Despite the popularity of the film and its follow-up, *The Singing Fool* (1928), Jolson did not succeed in film. He made several more films, but his personal appeal to an audience never really came through on the screen. His career declined in the 1930s, but he continued to perform on radio and entertained soldiers during World War II (1939–45; a war fought mostly in Europe between the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union on one side, and Germany, Italy, and Japan on the other). He also campaigned for several presidents by singing at rallies. In 1946 *The Al Jolson Story*, a fictional version of his life, was released

and was an immediate success. In 1949 *Jolson Sings Again*, another smash hit, was released.

Jolson was married four times, and he had three children. He died of heart failure on October 23, 1950, the night before a planned radio taping with actor/singer Bing Crosby (1904–1977).

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JAMES EARL JONES

Born: January 17, 1931

Arkabutla, Mississippi

African American actor

Award-winning actor James Earl Jones has acted on television, stage, and screen. He is best known for his deep bass voice.

Unhappy childhood

The only child of Robert Earl and Ruth Connolly Jones, James Earl Jones was born on January 17, 1931, in Arkabutla, Mississippi. Before his son's birth, James's father left the family to pursue a career as a boxer and later as an actor. Ruth Jones left soon after to

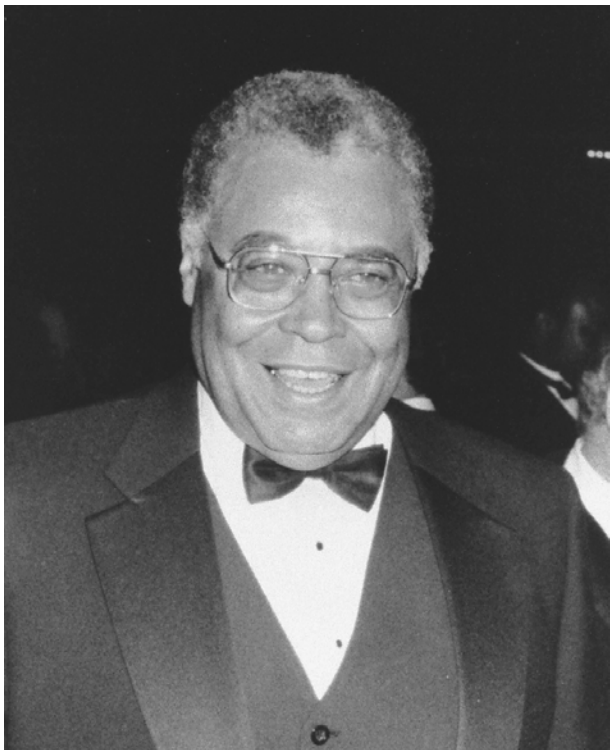
find work, leaving her separated from her son for long periods of time. This was during the Great Depression, a slowdown in the United States's system of producing, distributing, and using goods and services that caused millions of Americans to lose their jobs. Jones told *Newsweek* that being abandoned hurt him deeply. "No matter how old the character I play," he said, "those deep childhood memories, those furies, will come out. I understand this."

Jones lived at his grandparents' farm and hunted, fished, and performed various chores. He also attended church, where he watched his grandmother's dramatic displays of religious feeling. Eventually Jones's grandparents formally adopted him and took him north to Michigan. Jones struggled in his new surroundings. He developed a stutter and soon found communication so difficult that at certain periods during grammar school he could talk only to himself or his immediate family. The problem continued in high school, where an English teacher suggested he memorize speeches and enter speaking contests. This cured Jones of his problem.

Discovers acting

Jones attended the University of Michigan on a full scholarship (money given to a student to attend college), intending to study medicine. At first he took acting classes as a hobby, but he soon switched his major to theater. When he was twenty-one years old and a junior at Michigan, he traveled to New York City to meet his father for the first time. The relationship was strained by the many years they had been apart, but Jones's father encouraged him to pursue a career in theater. James graduated from Michigan in 1953 with a bachelor's degree in drama.

JONES, JAMES EARL



James Earl Jones.

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In 1953 Jones joined the army, serving in a ranger (a soldier who confronts the enemy at close range) training program in the Colorado mountains. He was set to reenlist in 1955 when his commanding officer suggested that he take a break before making a long-term commitment. Jones moved to New York City and enrolled in more acting classes. He lived with his father for a time, and the two earned extra money by polishing theater floors. In 1957 the younger Jones earned his first professional role in a production of *Wedding in Japan*. Although he was rarely out of work after that, his salary during the late 1950s averaged only forty-five dollars a week.

In 1959 Jones began a long stretch with the New York Shakespeare Festival, carrying a spear in *Henry V*. Before long he was given bigger roles, and in 1963 he played the lead in *Othello*, one of thirteen plays he appeared in that year. *Othello* ran for a year with Jones in the lead. He also found time to make one film appearance, in director Kubrick's (1928–1999) *Dr. Strangelove*. In the mid-1960s Jones became the first African American man to take a continuing role on a daytime soap opera when he played a doctor on *As The World Turns*.

Critical success

In 1967, while Jones was touring Europe in Eugene O'Neill's (1888–1953) *The Emperor Jones*, he was given a copy of a play titled *The Great White Hope*. The story of the life of boxing champion Jack Johnson (1878–1946), *The Great White Hope*, was scheduled for a possible Broadway run. Jones wanted the part badly. He began working out to build his muscles, working with boxing managers, and watching old footage of Johnson's fights. He won the part, and the show opened on Broadway in October 1968.

The Great White Hope was a success. Jones won a Tony Award for his performance, and he was nominated (put forward for consideration) for an Academy Award in 1970 when the play was made into a motion picture. Still, Jones told *TV Guide* that his work in *The Great White Hope* did not prove to be the career boost he thought it would. He blamed racism (unequal treatment based on race) for the inability of several of his projects, including a life story of civil rights leader Malcolm X (1925–1965), to be approved for production.

Many different roles

Jones returned to the stage, appearing in *Hamlet* (1972), *King Lear* (1973), and *Of Mice and Men* (1974). He also performed in a series of minor films, including *The Man* and *The Bingo Long Traveling All-Stars and Motor Kings*. Jones's most popular movie role of the 1970s and early 1980s was one in which only his voice was used. He gave a memorable level of evil to the villain Darth Vader in all three *Star Wars* films.

In 1982 Jones appeared in the film *Conan, the Barbarian*. To critics who questioned why he took roles in second-rate films, Jones had a simple reply: movies and television pay well, theater does not. "I can't afford to take a vacation unless I do some commercials when I'm in New York," he pointed out in the *Saturday Review*. "Money goes fast, and you can't get along doing only stage work." In 1991 Jones appeared in a series of television ads for the Bell Atlantic Yellow Pages.

Jones's work in the late 1980s and early 1990s was as varied as his early career. He played a writer in *Field of Dreams* (1990), a Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) chief in *Patriot Games* (1992), and a judge in *Sommersby* (1994). On television he starred as a private investigator in *Gabriel's Fire* and as a police officer in *Under One Roof*. He earned another Tony Award in 1988 for his portrayal of a Negro League baseball player in the play *Fences*.

Later years

In 1990 Jones announced that his age and health were forcing him to cut back his work in live theater. Jones stressed that he did not plan to retire from the theater completely; he

simply wanted to spend more time on other projects. In 1993 *Voices and Silences*, his autobiography (the story of his one's own life), was published. Jones and his second wife, actress Cecilia Hart, have one son. Looking toward the future, Jones sees no lack of opportunities in show business. "There are lots of wonderful cameos (roles in which only a brief appearance is made) and a lot of good lead roles out there," he concluded in the *Los Angeles Times*. "There are a lot of things I can do."

In September 2001 Jones was the first speaker at a service in York's Yankee Stadium to honor the victims of the terrorist attacks on the United States twelve days earlier. In January 2002 city officials in Lauderhill, Florida, invited Jones to speak at their annual Martin Luther King, Jr. (1929–1968) Day Celebration. A plaque was unveiled that mistakenly paid tribute to James Earl Ray, the man convicted of shooting and killing King, rather than James Earl Jones.

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QUINCY
JONES

Born: March 14, 1933

Chicago, Illinois

African American musician, composer, producer, arranger, and film and television executive

Quincy Jones has worked as a musician, composer, arranger, producer, and film and television executive. He also helped Michael Jackson (1958–), Oprah Winfrey (1954–), and many others become stars.

Early life

Quincy Delight Jones, Jr., was born in Chicago, Illinois, on March 14, 1933. His parents divorced soon after his younger brother, Lloyd, was born, and the Jones boys were raised by their father, a carpenter, and his new wife. She had three children of her own and three more with Quincy Jones, Sr. His birth mother, Sarah Jones, was in and out of mental hospitals, and it was not until his adult life that Quincy was able to enjoy a close relationship with her. When Jones was ten years old his family moved to Bremerton, Washington, a suburb of Seattle, Washington. He began taking trumpet lessons at school, and three years later he met a fifteen-year-old musician named Ray Charles (1932–). The two formed a band and played in local clubs and weddings, and soon Jones was composing and arranging music for the group.

Music career

After high school and a scholarship at Boston's Berklee College of Music, Jones was introduced to the life of a musician on the road. He toured with Dizzy Gillespie (1917–1993) in 1956 and Lionel Hampton (1909–2002) in 1957, and then he made his base in Paris, France. He studied with composer Nadia Boulanger (1887–1979), wrote for Harry Arnold's Swedish All-Stars in Stockholm, Sweden, and directed the music for Harold Arlen's production *Free and Easy*,

which toured Europe for three months, ending in early 1960.

After an unsuccessful tour of the United States with a band made up of eighteen musicians from *Free and Easy*, Jones worked as musical director at Mercury Records in New York. He became the first African American executive in a white-owned record company in 1964 when he was promoted to vice president at Mercury. He produced albums, sat in on recording sessions, and wrote arrangements for artists at Mercury as well as other labels. Jones wrote for Andy Williams (1928–), Peggy Lee (1920–2002), and Aretha Franklin (1942–), as well as arranging and conducting *It Might As Well Be Swing*, an album featuring Frank Sinatra (1915–1998) and the Count Basie (1904–1984) Band.

Film and television music

Jones's first venture into Hollywood came when he composed the score (the music that accompanies a movie) for the 1965 film *The Pawnbroker*. Jones won an Academy Award for his score for *In Cold Blood* (1967) and went on to write the music for over fifty films. In 1969 Jones signed a contract as a recording artist with A&M Records, and his first album with that label, *Walking in Space*, won a Grammy for best jazz instrumental (without vocals) album of 1969.

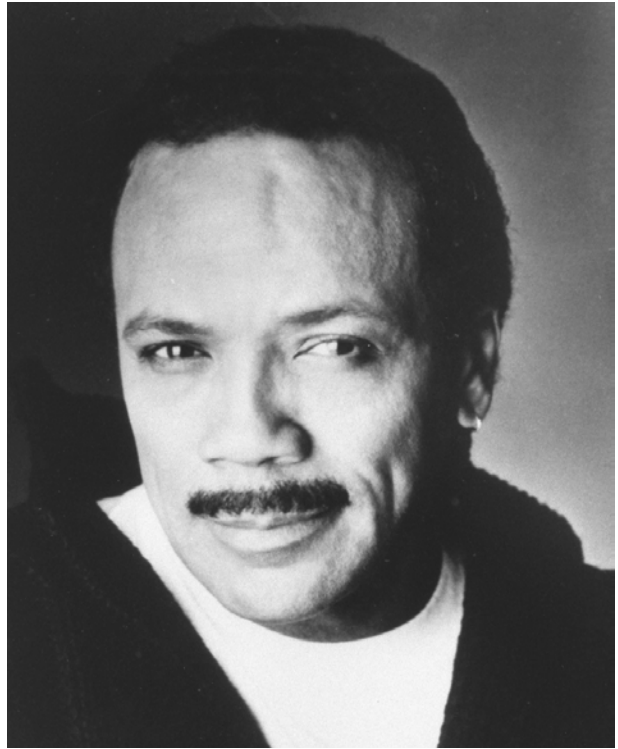
Television has also featured Jones's music, starting in 1971 with musical scores and theme songs for such shows as *Ironside* and *Sanford and Son*. In 1973 Jones co-produced "Duke Ellington, We Love You Madly," a special for the Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS), featuring a forty-eight-piece orchestra conducted by Jones. The special was a project of the Institute for Black American Music, a foundation

formed by Jones and other musicians with the goal of increasing awareness of the African American contribution to American music and Duke Ellington (1899–1974) in particular. Jones also wrote the score for the successful 1977 television mini-series *Roots*.

Recording and producing

Burned out from producing film soundtracks, Jones stopped working for Hollywood in 1973 to explore his own music career as a vocalist. His singing debut was with Valerie Simpson on an album called *You've Got It Bad, Girl*. The title song from the album stayed at the top of the charts for most of the summer of 1973. Jones's next album, 1974's *Body Heat*, was an even bigger hit. Containing the hit songs "Everything Must Change" and "If I Ever Lose This Heaven," the album sold over a million copies. In 1974 Jones nearly died after suffering two aneurysms (irregular stretching of blood vessels) two months apart. After a six-month recovery he was back at work, touring and recording with a fifteen-member band, with which he released the album *Mellow Madness*.

After Jones's 1980 album *The Dude* won five Grammy awards, he signed a deal with Warner Brothers Records to create his own label, Qwest. It took Jones almost ten years to make his next album, *Back on the Block*. During that time he produced hit albums for other artists, including Michael Jackson's *Thriller* (1983), which is still one of the best-selling albums of all time with forty million copies sold. Jones also has one of the best-selling singles of all time, "We Are the World," to his credit. Another triumph for Jones in the mid-1980s was his production of *The Color Purple*, the film version of Alice



Quincy Jones.

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Walker's (1944–) novel, which featured the first film performance of Oprah Winfrey.

Later years

In the early 1990s Jones worked on a huge, ongoing project, "The Evolution of Black Music," for which he had been gathering material for years. He was back in television as well; the Quincy Jones Entertainment Company produced the National Broadcasting Company (NBC) comedy *Fresh Prince of Bel-Air* and as a weekly talk show hosted by Jones's friend the Reverend Jesse Jackson (1941–). Jones also worked on a film biography of the black Russian poet Alexander Pushkin (1799–1837). Quincy Jones Broad-

casting and Time Warner bought a New Orleans, Louisiana, television station, WNOL, which Jones was to oversee.

Quincy Jones has been married and divorced three times, and his six children have only recently been able to spend time with and come to know their father. The 1990 documentary *Listen Up: The Lives of Quincy Jones* contains scenes in which Quincy discusses his difficult childhood, his mentally ill mother, and his strained past with his children. The film also contains interviews with Frank Sinatra, Michael Jackson, and others who describe Jones as a hard worker with a creative brilliance that has influenced popular entertainment since 1950. In 1993 Jones started *Vibe* magazine, a well-received African American music journal. In 1995 he released Q's *Jook Joint*, featuring the talents of many of his friends such as Ray Charles and Stevie Wonder (1950–). The album was a celebration of his fifty years in the music industry.

In May 2000 the Quincy Jones Professorship of African American Music was established at Harvard University in Massachusetts. In January 2001 Jones received the first Ted Arison Award from the National Foundation for Advancement in the Arts, named for the man who created the organization. Later that year Jones contributed a song to the *Ocean's Eleven* soundtrack, published *Q: The Autobiography of Quincy Jones*, the story of his life, and received a Kennedy Center Honor in Washington, D.C. In February 2002 *Q: The Autobiography of Quincy Jones* won a Grammy in the best spoken word album category.

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BEN JONSON

Born: 1572

London, England

Died: August 6, 1637

London, England

English writer, playwright, and poet

Ben Jonson was an English playwright and poet best known for his satiric comedies (types of comedies that poke fun at human weaknesses). In many peoples opinion he was, next to William Shakespeare (1564–1616), the greatest dramatic genius of the English Renaissance (roughly the fourteenth through sixteenth centuries).

Early career

Ben Jonson was probably born in or near London, England, about a month after the death of his father, a clergyman (someone who works for the church). His father gained his position when King Henry VIII (1491–1547) ruled England, but lost it after Queen Mary (1516–1558) took the throne.

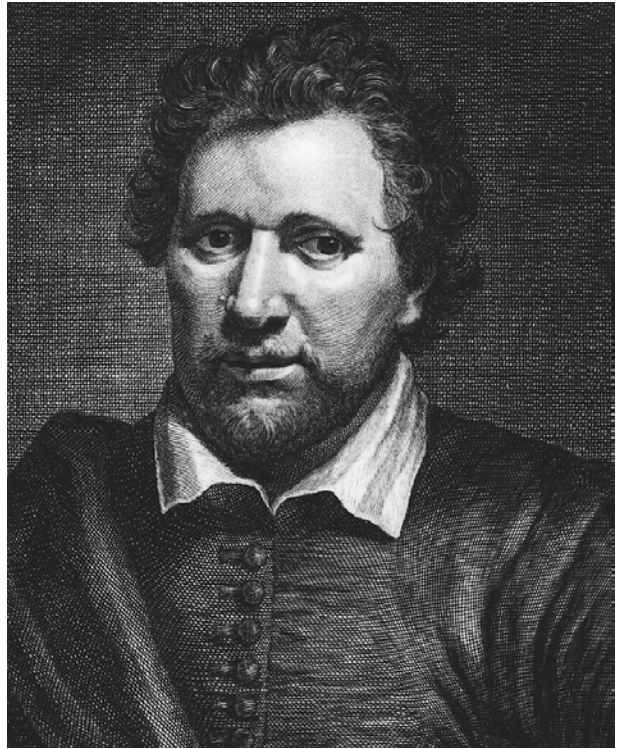
Jonson's mother then married a bricklayer. This may be why he did not continue his schooling. His stepfather made him work in the more practical business of bricklaying. Jonson also spent some time as a soldier and a traveling actor. He married sometime between 1592 and 1595.

Many people thought that English literature, and particularly drama, had already reached as high as it could when Ben Jonson began his career. But Jonson helped it gain even higher goals. Jonson's special gift was his strong sense of artistic form and control. Although an accomplished scholar, he could also write in the way everyday people spoke. It was because of this skill that he was liked by both people who were well read and by people who did not have an advanced education.

Major works

Jonson's first major play was *Every Man in His Humour*. It was performed by a theater group called the Lord Chamberlain's Men. William Shakespeare performed the lead role. This play is a model of what is called the "comedy of humors," in which each character's action is ruled by a whim (impulse) or affectation (artificial behavior meant to impress others). After this play Jonson wrote *Every Man out of His Humour* in 1599 or early 1600, followed closely by *Cynthia's Revels* (1601) and *Poetaster* (1601).

Jonson gained fame when he wrote *Volpone, or the Fox* in 1606. It was loved not only by the people in London but also by the scholars at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. This was a major success for Jonson. After *Volpone*, Jonson wrote *Epicoene, or the Silent Woman* (1609), *The Alchemist* (1610), and *Bartholomew Fair* (1614).



Ben Jonson.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Later years

After *Bartholomew Fair*, Jonson did not write very well. However, many young poets and playwrights considered him a hero and called themselves "sons of Ben" or the "tribe of Ben." He was always considered an impressive and respected figure.

Much of the information about Jonson's personal life comes to us after this last period of playwriting. He spent a lot of time with the Scottish poet William Drummond of Hawthornden (1585–1649) in 1618. Drummond wrote down all the conversations he had with Jonson. Drummond said that Jonson was "a great lover and praiser of himself, a contemner

[despiser] and scorner of others, given rather to lose a friend than a jest.” In other words, Jonson made many jokes about other people and considered himself superior to others.

Jonson also wrote many other nondramatic writings, including a grammar of English, a miscellaneous (made of many different parts) collection of notes, and reflections on various authors entitled *Timber, or Discoveries* (also printed in 1640). He also wrote a large number of poems, almost all of them written in response to particular events in the poet's experience. Most of his poetry was written in short lyric (songlike) forms, which he handled with great skill. Jonson's poetic style also tends to be simple and unadorned yet highly polished, as in the epigram (a short witty poem) on the death of his first daughter, which begins “Here lies to each her parents ruth [sorrow],/Mary, the daughter of their youth.”

After the death of King James I of England (1603–1625) in 1625, Jonson suffered a number of setbacks. His talents were not fully appreciated by the new king, and as a result Jonson was frequently short of money. He was paralyzed in 1628 due to illness and confined for the remainder of his life to his home in Westminster. He continued his scholarly study of the classics, which had occupied him throughout his active life.

Jonson died on August 6, 1637. Because he was considered one of the most accomplished writers of the time, he was given the special honor of being buried in Westminster Abbey, in England.

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MICHAEL JORDAN

Born: February 17, 1963

Brooklyn, New York

African American basketball player

Basketball superstar Michael Jordan is one of the most successful, popular, and wealthy athletes in college, Olympic, and professional sports history.

Early life

Michael Jordan was born on February 17, 1963, in Brooklyn, New York, one of James and Deloris Jordan's five children. The family moved to Wilmington, North Carolina, when Michael was very young. His father worked as a General Electric plant supervisor, and his mother worked at a bank. His father taught him to work hard and not to be tempted by street life. His mother taught him to sew, clean, and do laundry. Jordan loved sports but failed to make his high school basketball team as a sophomore. He

continued to practice and made the team the next year. After high school he accepted a basketball scholarship to the University of North Carolina, where he played under head coach Dean Smith.

In Jordan's first season at North Carolina he was named Atlantic Coast Conference (ACC) Rookie of the Year for 1982. The team won the ACC championship, and Jordan made the clutch jump shot that beat Georgetown University for the championship of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). Jordan led the ACC in scoring as a sophomore and as a junior. The *Sporting News* named him college player of the year for both years. He left North Carolina after his junior year and was selected by the Chicago Bulls of the National Basketball Association (NBA) as the third pick of the 1984 draft. Before joining the Bulls, Jordan was a member of the Summer 1984 United States Olympic basketball team that won the gold medal in Los Angeles, California.



Michael Jordan.

Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.

Early pro years

When Jordan was drafted by the Chicago Bulls they were a losing team, drawing only around six thousand fans to home games. Jordan quickly turned that around. His style of play and fierce spirit of competition reminded sportswriters and fans of Julius Erving (1950–), who had been a superstar player during the 1970s. Jordan's incredible leaping ability and hang time thrilled fans in arenas around the league. In his first season he was named to the All-Star team and was later honored as the league's Rookie of the Year.

A broken foot sidelined Jordan for 64 games during the 1985–86 season, but he

returned to score 49 points against the Boston Celtics in the first game of the playoffs and 63 in the second game—an NBA playoff record. The 1986–87 season was again one of individual successes, and Jordan started in the All-Star game after receiving a record 1.5 million votes. He became the first player since Wilt Chamberlain (1936–1999) to score 3,000 points in a single season. Jordan enjoyed personal success, but Chicago did not advance beyond the first round of the playoffs until 1988. Jordan concentrated on improving his other basketball skills, and in 1988 he was named Defensive Player of the Year. He was also named the league's Most

Valuable Player (MVP) and became the first player to lead the league in both scoring and steals. He was again named MVP in that year's All-Star game.

By adding such players as Scottie Pippen, Bill Cartwright, Horace Grant, and John Paxson around Jordan, the Bulls' management created a strong team that won the 1991 NBA title by defeating the Los Angeles Lakers. The next year, the Bulls repeated as NBA champions by beating the Portland Trail Blazers. In 1992 Jordan also played on the "Dream Team," which participated in the Summer Olympic Games in Barcelona, Spain. The Olympic Committee had voted to lift the ban on professional athletes participating in the games. The team easily won the gold medal, winning their eight games by an average margin of 43.7 points.

Unexpected retirement

In 1993, after a tough playoff series with the New York Knicks, the Bulls met the Phoenix Suns for the NBA championship. When it was over, Jordan was again playoff MVP, and Chicago had won a third straight title. That summer Jordan's father, James, was murdered by two men during a robbery attempt. Jordan was grief stricken, and his father's death, combined with media reports about his gambling, led him to announce his retirement from professional basketball in October. Jordan had won three straight NBA titles, three regular season MVP awards, three playoff MVP titles, seven consecutive scoring titles, and he was a member of the All-Star team every year that he was in the league. In just nine seasons he had become the Bulls all-time leading scorer.

In 1994–95 Jordan played for the Birmingham Barons, a minor league baseball team in the Chicago White Sox system. Although the seventeen-month experiment showed that he was not a major league baseball player, the experience and time away from basketball provided a much-needed rest and opportunity to regain his love of basketball.

Return to glory

When Jordan returned to the Chicago Bulls during the 1994–95 regular season, people wondered, "Could he do it again?" He played well, but he was obviously rusty. The Bulls were defeated in the playoffs by the Orlando Magic. After a summer of playing basketball during breaks from filming the live-action cartoon movie *Space Jam*, Jordan returned with a fierce determination to prove that he had the ability to get back on top. The 1995–96 Bulls finished the regular season 72–10, an NBA record for most wins in a season, and Jordan, with his shooting rhythm back, earned his eighth scoring title. He also became the tenth NBA player to score 25,000 career points and second fastest after Chamberlain to reach that mark. The Bulls went on to win their fourth NBA championship, overpowering the Seattle Supersonics in six games. Few who watched will ever forget how Jordan sank to his knees, head bent over the winning ball, in a moment of bittersweet victory and deep sadness. The game had been played on Father's Day, three years after his father's murder.

The defending champions had a tougher time during the 1996–97 season but entered the playoffs as expected. Sheer determination took the Bulls to their fifth NBA championship. Illness, injury, and at

times a lack of concentration hurt the team. In the fifth game of the finals Jordan carried the team to victory despite suffering from a stomach virus. In the 1997–98 season the Bulls were again in the playoffs, and again they faced tough competition. As before, they were able to clinch the NBA championship, and Jordan claimed his sixth NBA finals MVP award.

Jordan's other professional life as a businessman was never off track. Profitable endorsements (ads in which he voiced his support for certain products) for companies such as Nike and Wheaties, as well as his own golf company and products such as Michael Jordan cologne (which reportedly sold 1.5 million bottles in its first two months), made Jordan a multimillionaire. In 1997 he was ranked the world's highest paid athlete, with a \$30 million contract—the largest one-year salary in sports history—and approximately \$40 million a year in endorsement fees.

Retired again

Jordan retired for a second time in 1999, ending his career on a high note just after the official end of a labor dispute between NBA players and team owners. Many people saw him as the greatest basketball player ever, and his retirement was called the end of an era. In 2000 Jordan became part-owner and president of basketball operations of the Washington Wizards. This made him only the third African American owner in the NBA. He also gained an ownership stake in the Washington Capitals hockey team. Also in 2000, Jordan celebrated the first year of his \$1 million grant program to help teachers make a difference in their schools.

In September 2001, after months of rumors, Jordan announced that he was ending his three-year retirement to play for the Wizards at age thirty-eight. At a news conference to discuss his comeback, he said, "Physically, I know I'm not twenty-five years old, but I feel I can play the game of basketball on the highest level." The Wizards, who had won only nineteen games the season before, improved with the addition of Jordan. After being voted to play in his thirteenth All-Star game (during which he missed a slam dunk), Jordan had the Wizards in the race for the playoffs until suffering a knee injury and missing the last part of the season. He was also distracted in January 2002 when his wife Juanita, whom he married in 1989, filed for divorce. (They have three children.) The next month the divorce was called off. Jordan said he planned to play one more season for the Wizards.

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James Joyce.

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JAMES JOYCE

Born: February 2, 1882

Rathgar, Ireland

Died: January 13, 1941

Zurich, Switzerland

Irish author

James Joyce was an Irish author who experimented with ways to use language, symbolism (having one thing to stand for another), interior monologue (characters talking to themselves), and stream of

consciousness (the uninterrupted, continuous flow of a character's thoughts).

Early years

James Joyce was born on February 2, 1882, in Rathgar, Ireland, a suburb of Dublin, Ireland. His father had several jobs including a position as tax collector for the city of Dublin. His mother, Mary Jane Murray Joyce, was a gifted piano player. James's father was not very successful, and the family had to move fourteen times from the time James was born until he left Ireland.

Joyce was educated entirely in Jesuit (a Catholic religious order) schools in Ireland. He did very well in the study of philosophy (the study of humans and their relationship to the universe) and languages. After his graduation in 1902, he left Ireland for the rest of his life. After that he lived in Trieste, Italy; Zurich, Switzerland; and Paris, France, with his wife and two children.

Early fiction

Most of Joyce's fiction is autobiographical, that is, it is based on his own life experiences. Even though he left his native country, his work is based mainly on Ireland, family, and Roman Catholicism.

Joyce's *Dubliners* is a collection of fifteen short stories. He finished writing the work in 1904, but it could not be published until ten years later because the British government thought it contained things that offended the king. *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, published in 1916, is a semi-autobiographical (based on the author's own life) novel of adolescence (the teenage years). It is the story of Stephen Dedalus, a young writer who

rebels against the surroundings of his youth. He rejects his father, family, and religion, and, like Joyce, decides at the novel's close to leave Ireland. His name comes from Greek mythology (stories that tell of gods or explain natural occurrences). In the myth Dedalus made a maze to hold the Minotaur (a monster that was half man and half bull). He was jailed in the labyrinth with his son, Icarus. In order to escape, he made wings of feathers and wax, but Icarus flew too near the sun, which melted the wax causing him to die when he plunged into the sea. For Joyce and others after him, Stephen Dedalus became a symbol for all artists. Stephen appears again in *Ulysses*, perhaps Joyce's most respected novel.

Ulysses

Joyce published *Ulysses* in 1922. Many consider it Joyce's most mature work. It is patterned after Homer's *Odyssey*. Homer was a Greek poet who produced his works around 850 B.C.E. Each of the eighteen chapters is related to a part of the original Greek epic (long poem that tells a heroic story), but there are other sources, too. The action takes place in a single day, June 16, 1904. It tells the story of Leopold Bloom, his wife Molly, and Stephen Dedalus, and how the actions of each person touches the others during that day. *Ulysses* is considered one of the most important books in the development of the modern novel. To tell this story, Joyce used what he called the stream of consciousness. Using this technique Joyce permits the reader to enter the consciousness (thoughts) of his characters, listen to parts of conversations, experience what the characters feel, and relive their memories.

Finnegans Wake

Finnegans Wake is the most difficult of all of Joyce's works to understand. It was published in 1939. The novel has no real plot. Instead, it relies upon sound, rhythm of language, and puns (word jokes). These parts create a surface and the meanings are under that surface. Most people consider *Finnegans Wake* to be a novel, but others have called it a poem. The novel was not well-received, and Joyce relied on the help of friends for financial assistance after it was published.

Late life

Joyce knew his family was not safe in France when it was taken over by the Germans during World War II (1939–45; a war in which Germany, Japan, and Italy fought against France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States). He borrowed money and fled to Switzerland with his family. Joyce died in Zurich, Switzerland, on January 13, 1941. He is considered one of the most important novelists of the twentieth century.

The modern novel owes much to James Joyce. His understanding of philosophy, theology (religious studies), and foreign languages enabled him to use the English language in exciting new ways. His novel *Ulysses* was brought to trial on charges of obscenity (being offensive) in the United States, but Joyce was found innocent. This marked a breakthrough on how subject matter and language could be used in the modern English novel.

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BENITO JUÁREZ

Born: March 21, 1806

San Pablo Guelatao, Oaxaca, Mexico

Died: July 18, 1872

Mexico City, Mexico

Mexican statesman and president

Benito Juárez was a Mexican statesman and four-time president of Mexico. After resisting takeover by European powers, Juárez installed numerous social changes that would improve the lives of the Mexican people.

Early life

Benito Juárez was born in the small Zapotec Indian village of San Pablo Guelatao, Oaxaca, Mexico, on March 21, 1806. His parents, who were poor peasants, died when he was three years old. Juárez then lived with his grandparents and later with an uncle. He worked with his uncle until he was thirteen. Then he walked forty miles to the city of Oaxaca, Mexico, to move in with his sister. At the

time he could not yet speak Spanish (he spoke the language used in the Oaxaca tribe).

In Oaxaca, Juárez worked with Don Antonio Salanueva, a bookbinder, who basically adopted him. Helped by Salanueva and a local teacher, Juárez eventually learned to read and write. In 1827 he graduated from the Seminary of Santa Cruz, but later changed career paths and decided to study law. In 1831 he qualified to enter a local law office, but as the legal profession was already overcrowded, he began a second career as an antiestablishment Liberal politician with goals to change the Mexican government.

Early career

In 1831 Juárez entered politics as an official on the Oaxacan town council. In 1835 the city elected him as a Liberal deputy to the federal legislature. He carried forward his legal career, often serving as a representative of the severely poor Indian communities in their struggles to protect their landholdings. Honest and intelligent, he became one of Oaxaca's leading lawyers.

By this time, Mexico seemed on the verge of total collapse. Thirty years of violence had left the treasury bankrupt, communications disrupted, and the population unconfident. Two factions (rival groups creating conflict), defining themselves as Conservatives and Liberals, constantly fought to control Mexico. The Conservatives, represented large landholders, the Church, the army, and the large cities. The Liberals, who represented small merchants, some intellectuals, political leaders in rural areas, and the small ranchers of the west and south, wanted to modernize Mexico.

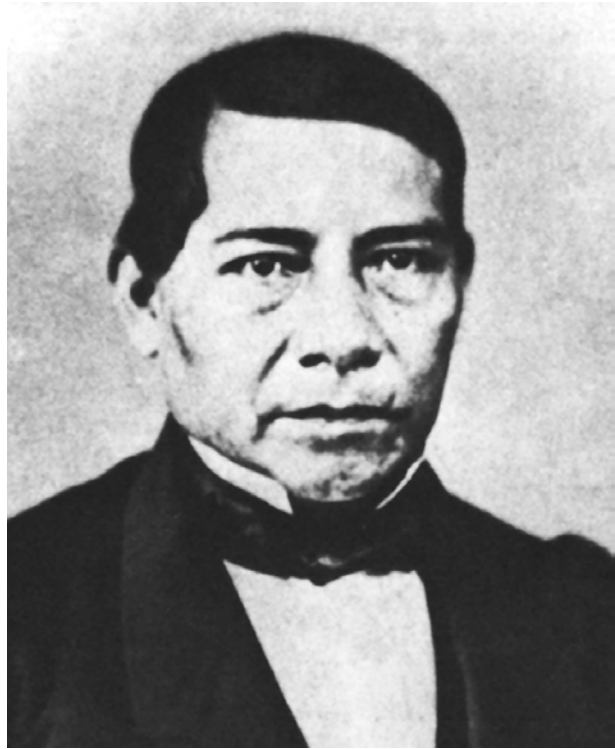
During the Conservative domination of Mexico between 1836 and 1846, Juárez largely avoided elective office but often accepted professional and political appointments from the Conservative state authorities. In 1841 the state government appointed him a federal court judge, a post in which he served with excellence. His local standing had increased through his marriage to Margarita Mazza, the daughter of one of Oaxaca's wealthiest families.

Governor of Oaxaca

In 1846 the Liberal party, led by former president Valentín Gómez Farías, took power throughout Mexico and Juárez returned to the Liberal faction. In 1847 and 1848, during Mexico's war with the United States over land in America's Southwest, he became Oaxaca's acting governor and then elected governor.

Juárez reduced corruption and built roads, public buildings, and schools. He reorganized the state national guard, and when he left office in 1852, the economy of Oaxaca was in good standing. His state government became renowned throughout Mexico for its honesty, public spirit, and constructiveness. He also served as a lawyer, often helping the poor.

In 1853 the Conservative party, led by the brilliant Lucas Alamán (1792–1853), seized power by a barracks coup, or hostile takeover. One of the revolt's leaders was Antonio López de Santa Ana (1794–1876), the corrupt general who had frequently dominated Mexico during the previous twenty years. Seeking to strengthen his power, Santa Ana immediately exiled (forced to leave) the leaders of the Liberal party, including Juárez.



Benito Juárez.

Return to Mexico

In Mexico, Santa Ana had run the country into further bankruptcy (complete financial ruin). Liberals launched a revolt and Santa Ana's government collapsed with little fighting. The Liberals again assumed power with Juan Álvarez as president. But the voluntary retirement of Álvarez in 1857 ended the Liberal hopes for a peaceful transformation of Mexico. The following period, known as the Three Year War (1857–60), proved to be one of the most bloody and wasteful in Mexican history.

The only positive result of these years was the emergence of Juárez as the undisputed leader of the Liberal party. At the same

time, the Conservatives had named one of their own the president of Mexico and sent their troops northward to crush Liberal resistance. Through the conflict, Juárez fled to Veracruz, Mexico. Three years later, the reorganized Liberal armies under Santos Degollado, Porfirio Díaz, and Jesús González Ortega took Mexico City. The Conservative armies fell apart, and their leaders went into exile. In 1860 the Mexican people elected Juárez president.

Verge of collapse

Juárez was determined to carry out national reconstruction, but he had staggering problems. The government, seeking to develop a large agrarian middle class, or a class of farm workers, tried to distribute the lands to those working them. However, the Liberals needed money to pay the army and the national debt. Pressed for funds, public officials allowed these lands to go to those who could pay for them immediately, mostly rich land developers and foreign investors.

On the verge of economic collapse, Mexico was at the mercy of foreign nations, in particular England, France, and Spain. The English and Spanish soon withdrew, but the French emperor, Louis Napoleon (1808–1873), attempted to establish a Mexican empire under the Austrian archduke Maximilian (1832–1867). Aided by small Conservative forces, the French took Mexico City in 1863. Once again, Juárez was forced to flee.

End of his career

The years between 1864 and 1867 determined the future of Mexico and the Liberal reforms. Juárez refused to serve in an imperial cabinet, a body of advisors under control

of a foreign empire. The imperialists controlled the cities, but the countryside remained in a state of revolt. Faced with mounting costs in men and money and the rise of Prussia, which was part of the German empire, the French withdrew from Mexico.

Juárez accomplished much in the remaining four years of his life. The government began to build railroads and schools, the military budget was cut, and the Church was stripped of its large landholdings. Most important, Mexico had its first effective government, based upon the Constitution of 1857, which guaranteed free speech, free press, right of assembly (right to organize), and the abolishment of special legal privileges.

On the negative side, Juárez refused to distribute authority and insisted, despite much opposition, upon his own reelection in 1871. He sincerely believed that he alone could govern Mexico, but many now saw him as a dictator, or an absolute ruler. Furthermore, he had failed to rid the country of internal tariffs (taxes) or to reduce large independent landholdings. In 1871 his army crushed the revolt of Porfirio Díaz, but the Liberal party had split into factions. On July 18, 1872, the president suffered from a stroke and died at his desk.

Juárez had many failings, but he was one of the greatest Mexican executives. He fought for and established a liberal constitution and stubbornly saved the country from foreign domination, although he did little to help the rural proletariat, or working class.

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CARL JUNG

Born: July 26, 1875

Kesswil, Switzerland

Died: June 26, 1961

Küsnacht, Switzerland

Swiss psychologist and psychiatrist

The Swiss psychologist and psychiatrist Carl Jung was one of the major forces responsible for bringing psychological (having to do with the mind and its processes) thought and its theories into the twentieth century.

Jung's youth and personal life

Carl Gustav Jung was born on July 26, 1875, in Kesswil, Switzerland, the son of a Protestant minister. At the age of four, the family moved to Basel. When he was six years old, Carl went to the village school in Klein-Huningen. His father also started teaching him Latin at this time. During his childhood,

Jung preferred to be left alone to play by himself. He was happiest when he was in isolation with his thoughts.

As Jung grew older, his keen interest in a large variety of sciences, and the history of religion made the choice of a career quite difficult. However, he finally decided on medicine, which he studied at the University of Basel (1895–1900). He received his medical degree from the University of Zurich in 1902. Later he studied psychology (the scientific study of the mind and its processes) in Paris, France.

In 1903 Jung married Emma Rauschenbach. She was his loyal companion and scientific coworker until her death in 1955. The couple had five children, and lived in Küsnacht on the Lake of Zurich.

Career begins

Jung began his professional career in 1900 as an assistant to Eugen Bleuler (1857–1939) at the psychiatric clinic of the University of Zurich. During these years of his internship, Jung, with a few associates, worked out the so-called association experiment. This is a method of testing used to reveal affectively significant groups of ideas in the unconscious area of the psyche (the mind). These groups or “complexes” as Jung called them, would have a control over the affected person, and would encourage anxieties and inappropriate emotions.

When Jung read Sigmund Freud's (1856–1939) *Interpretation of Dreams*, he found his own ideas and observations to be basically confirmed and furthered. He sent his publication *Studies in Word Association* (1904) to Freud, and this was the beginning of their



Carl Jung.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

work together, as well as their friendship, which lasted from 1907 to 1913. Jung was eager to explore the secrets of the unconscious psyche expressed by dreaming, fantasies, myths, fairy tales, superstition, and occultism (belief in supernatural powers or forces). But Freud had already worked out his theories about the basic cause of every psycho-neurosis (an emotional problem that becomes known through physical symptoms or through feelings of anxiety, depression, or fear) and also his belief that all the expressions of the unconscious (the part of the mind that is not a usual part of a person's awareness) are hidden wish fulfillments. Jung felt more and

more that these theories were scientific presumptions (beliefs that are based on expected outcomes), which did not do full justice to the expressions of unconscious psychic life. For him the unconscious not only is a disturbing factor causing psychic illnesses but also is basically the source of man's creativeness and the roots of a person's consciousness. With such ideas Jung came increasingly into conflict with Freud, who regarded Jung's ideas as unscientific. Jung accused Freud of narrow-mindedness; Freud and his followers disapproved of Jung for his emphasis of the spiritual aspects of the psyche.

Jung's work after Freud

Jung was bothered by his break with Freud. He began a deepened self-analysis (an examination of oneself) in order to gain all the honesty and firmness for his own journey into discovering the mysteries of the unconscious psyche. During the years from 1913 to 1921 Jung published only three important papers: "Two Essays on Analytical Psychology" (1916, 1917) and "Psychological Types" (1921). The "Two Essays" provided the basic ideas from which his later work was developed. He described his research on psychological typology (the classification of personalities by studying their similarities and differences)—that there are two basic classifications, or "two types of personalities," in the way they relate to the world: introversion and extroversion. Introversion, in which one has the characteristic of being self-involved, withdrawn, occupied with one's "inner world." Extroversion, in which one relates to the world through social involvement and has interests outside of oneself and is "out-going." He expressed the idea that it is the

“personal equation” which, often unconsciously but in agreement with one’s own typology, influences how an individual observes and interacts with their world.

Next to Jung’s typology, his main contribution was his discovery that man’s fantasy life has a certain structure. There must be subtle active centers in the unconscious which control natural behavior and free imagination. These combine to form Jung’s concept of archetypes. An individual will dream on impulse, and these dreams will have a theme or story similar to a fairy tale, or a myth, from a time long past, that are unknown to the person dreaming. To Jung this meant that archetypal symptoms (memories of experiences of people from the past that are present in every person’s unconscious mind) belong to human beings of all ages and from all times; they are the expression of a collective body of man’s basic psychic nature. Many neurotic sufferings have happened due to a feeling of self-estrangement (the alienation of oneself from oneself) because of man’s creation of a logical framework and control of his dependence on these “memories” of experiences that exist in the unconscious.

In order to study archetypal patterns and processes, Jung visited so-called primitive tribes. He lived among the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and Arizona in 1924 and 1925 and among the inhabitants of Mt. Elgon in Kenya during 1925 and 1926. He later visited Egypt and India. To Jung, the religious symbols and phenomenology (a system of beliefs developed by studying peoples understanding and awareness of themselves) of Buddhism and Hinduism and the teachings of Zen Buddhism and Confucianism all

expressed differentiated experiences on the way to man’s inner world, a world which was badly neglected by Western civilization. Jung also searched for traditions in Western culture, which made up for its one-sided outgoing development toward reason and technology. He found these traditions in Gnosticism (belief that personal freedom comes through spiritual knowledge and understanding), Christian mysticism (the belief that instinct and spiritual feeling are the ways to find God), and, above all, occultism (knowledge or use of supernatural powers). Some of his major works are deep and clear psychological interpretations of alchemical (the ability and power to make common things special) writings, showing their living significance for understanding dreams and the hidden theme of neurotic and mental disorders.

Inner development and growth of personality

Of prime importance to Jung was the detailing of the stages of inner development and of the growth of the personality, which he termed the “process of individuation.” He described a strong impulse from the unconscious to guide the individual toward its most complete uniqueness. This achievement is a lifelong task of trial and error and identifying and uniting contents of the unconscious. It consists in an ever-increasing self-knowledge and in “becoming what you are.”

Jung lived for his explorations, his writings, and his psychological practice, which he had to give up in 1944 due to a severe heart attack. His career included the professorship of medical psychology at the University of Basel and the titular (title without the actual position) professorship of philosophy

from 1933 until 1942 on the faculty of philosophical and political sciences of the Federal Institute of Technology in Zurich. In 1948 he founded the C. G. Jung Institute in Zurich. Honorary doctorates were given to him by many important universities all over the world. Carl Gustav Jung died in Küsnacht on June 6, 1961.

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FRANZ KAFKA

Born: July 3, 1883

Prague, Czechoslovakia

Died: June 3, 1924

Prague, Czechoslovakia

*Czech-born German novelist and
short-story writer*

The Czech-born German novelist and short-story writer Franz Kafka presented man's experience of total isolation or separation from the environment around him. In his works man finds himself in a maze that he will never understand.

Early life

Franz Kafka was born on July 3, 1883, the eldest of six children of a middle-class merchant. He grew up as a member of a minority (the Jewish community) within a minority (the German-speaking population) at a time when there was little or no communication between the two groups or with the mainly Czech-speaking citizens of Prague. Even though Kafka acquired a thorough knowledge of Czech and a deep understanding of its literature early in his life, he was not accepted. This alienation (the state of being rejected or turned away) was reflected in his writing, most notably in the protagonists (main characters) of his stories, who were for the most part outcasts constantly asking,



Franz Kafka.

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"Where do I belong?" or "Where does man belong?"

An even greater source of frustration for Kafka was his domineering father, a successful businessman who was a powerful, imposing (impressive) man. Conflict with his father overshadowed Kafka's childhood and youth. It was from his mother that he inherited his sensitive and dreamy qualities. In his literary works, Kafka transformed this total lack of communication into the relationship between authority figures and man.

Even as a youngster Kafka must have wanted to write. For his parents' birthdays he

would compose little plays, which were performed at home by his three younger sisters, while he himself acted as stage manager. He was also an avid reader. Kafka attended a German grammar school from 1893 to 1901, and the Karl Ferdinand University of Prague from 1901 to 1906. He started out studying German literature but changed to the study of law in his second semester. In June 1906 he graduated with a degree of doctor of jurisprudence (the science of law).

Early works

In October 1906 Kafka began his practice of law. In early 1908 he joined the staff of the Workmen's Compensation Division of the Austrian government, a post he held until his retirement for reasons of ill health in July 1922. Here he came to know the suffering of the underprivileged workmen and wrote his first published works, "Conversation with a Beggar" and "Conversation with a Drunkard," which were published in 1909. Kafka's first collection of stories was published in 1913 under the title *Contemplation*. These sketches are polished, light impressions based on observations of life in and around Prague.

In September 1912 Kafka composed the story "The Verdict" in a single night. The story contains all the elements normally associated with Kafka's world, the most disorderly universe ever presented by a major artist. In "The Verdict" a bedridden authoritarian (domineering) father passes judgment on his conscientious (highly principled) but guilt-haunted son. His next work, completed in May 1913, was the story "The Stoker," later incorporated in his novel *Amerika* and awarded the Fontane Prize in 1915, his first public recognition.

His stories

The year 1913 saw the publication of Kafka's best-known story, *The Metamorphosis*. For the reader Kafka creates a world of psychotic delusion (absurd and extreme mental perception not based on reality) by means of an outrageous event: "When Gregor Samsa woke one morning from restless dreams, he found himself transformed in his bed into a monstrous insect." In spite of Gregor's gallant efforts to master his new situation, he dies.

In 1914 Kafka published a novella (short novel), *In the Penal Colony*. Several stories were published in 1919 in a collection dedicated to his father and entitled *The Country Doctor*. His story "The Hunger Artist" was published the following year, and a collection of four stories was published in 1923. Again, as in *The Metamorphosis*, it is the outsiders (outcasts of society), however sensitive and gifted, who fall into psychotic delusions—not the healthy realists, who always seem to survive the struggle for existence.

One of Kafka's most important writings is the one-hundred-page letter to his father. Written in November 1919, it is an attempt to explain his conscience (one's own ideals and sense of wrong or right) to his father and to declare his final independence from his father's authority.

His novels

Kafka's three great novel fragments, *Amerika*, *The Trial*, and *The Castle*, might have been lost to the world altogether had it not been for the courage of his friend Max Brod (1884–1968). Editing them after Kafka's death, Brod ignored his friend's request to destroy all of his unpublished manuscripts.

In *The Trial*, published in 1925, a man is arrested and convicted by a mysterious court. He tries to learn the nature of the guilt he feels, and the nature of the court, but he fails. He dies in ignorance. *The Castle*, published in 1926, presents a newcomer's futile (having no useful result) struggle to win acceptance and enter a castle in which an unknown supreme authority resides. *Amerika* is about the adventures of a teenage European immigrant in America.

During the years 1920 to 1922, Kafka's health was badly threatened, and he was forced to take sick leave. Kafka left Prague at the end of July 1923 and moved to Berlin-Steglitz, where he wrote his last, comparatively happy story, "The Little Woman." He returned to Prague three months before his death on June 3, 1924.

Franz Kafka is regarded as one of the major literary figures of the twentieth century. His works present a world that is both realistic and dreamlike. Individuals in it struggle with guilt, isolation, and fear. Kafka once said that all of his stories were intended to convey the message that "the incomprehensible [that which cannot be understood by the intellect] cannot be comprehended."

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WASSILY KANDINSKY

Born: December 4, 1866

Moscow, Russia

Died: December 13, 1944

Neuilly-sur-Seine, France

Russian painter and graphic artist

The Russian painter and graphic artist Wassily Kandinsky was one of the great masters of modern art, as well as the outstanding representative of pure abstract painting (using only colors and forms) that dominated the first half of the twentieth century.

Early years in Russia

Wassily Kandinsky was born on December 4, 1866, in Moscow, Russia. His father was a tea merchant. When he was five years old the family moved to Odessa, Russia. The young Kandinsky drew, wrote poems, and played the piano and the cello. Because his family was fond of traveling, Kandinsky got to see the Italian cities of Venice, Rome, and Florence as a young boy. He was also influenced by the imposing Muscovite (from Moscow) buildings such as the Kremlin.

Between 1886 and 1892 Kandinsky studied law and economics at the University of Moscow. In 1889 he was a member of a team formed to study the life of the people in the Vologda district in northwestern Russia. He was highly impressed by their folk art and the interior decorations of the village houses. The use of forms and colors became an influence in his art. In 1893 he accepted a position on the university's law faculty.

Beginnings as an artist

It was not until 1896, when Kandinsky was thirty years old, that he decided to become an artist. His artistic development was shaped greatly by an exhibition of French impressionist painters that was shown in Moscow in 1895. The impressionists used values of color and light to show their subjects rather than painting in fine detail. The works of Claude Monet (1840–1926) attracted Kandinsky's attention. In Monet's paintings the subject matter played a secondary role to color. It was as though reality and fairy tale were intermixed. That was the secret of Kandinsky's early work, which was based on folk art, and it remained so even as his work became more complex.

The year 1910 was crucial for Kandinsky and for the art world. Kandinsky produced his first abstract watercolor. In that work all elements of representation (the actual look of a subject) seem to have disappeared. In continuing his early abstract works he used strong straight-line strokes combined with powerful patches of color.

Return to Russia

When World War I (1914–18; a war in which Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Japan fought against Great Britain, France, Russia, and the United States) broke out, Kandinsky returned to Russia. In 1917 he married Nina Andreewsky. During the Russian Revolution (1917), which overthrew the czar, the ruler of Russia, the artist held an important post at the Commissariat (government bureau) of Popular Culture and at the Academy in Moscow. He organized twenty-two museums and became the director of the Museum of

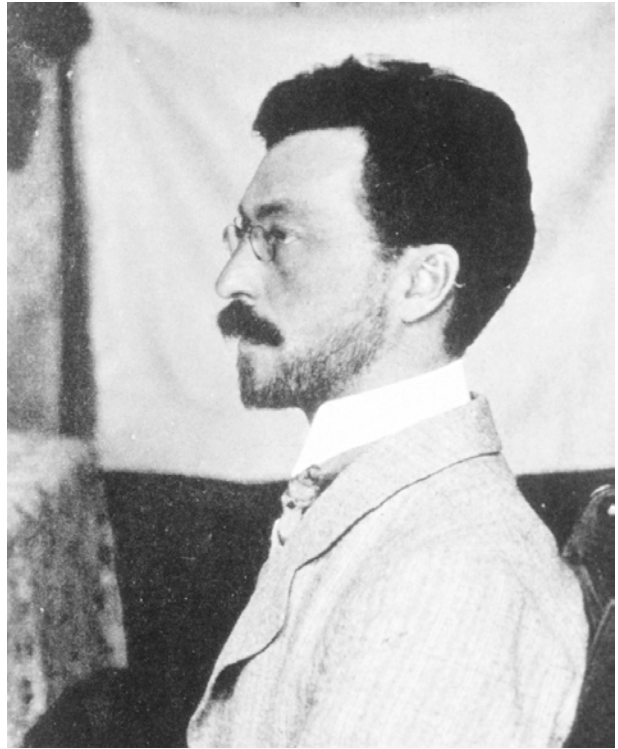
Pictorial Culture. In 1920 he was appointed professor at the University of Moscow. The following year he founded the Academy of Arts and Sciences and became its vice president. At the end of that year, the Soviet attitude toward art changed, and Kandinsky left Russia.

Years in Germany and France

In 1922 Kandinsky became a professor at the Bauhaus (a school of art, architecture, and design) in Weimar, Germany. His art from about 1920 to 1924 has been called his architectural period because the shapes he used were more precise than before. There are points, straight or broken lines, single or in bunches, and snakelike, radiating segments of circles. The color is cooler, and more subdued (softer, quieter).

Kandinsky became a German citizen in 1928. In 1929 Kandinsky held his first one-man show in Paris, France, and traveled to Belgium and the French Riviera. In 1930 he had another exhibition in Paris. In 1931 he produced wall decorations for a large architectural exhibition that was held in Berlin, Germany. When the Bauhaus closed in 1932, Kandinsky moved to Berlin. A year after that he moved to Paris.

From 1927 to 1933, Kandinsky's paintings were characterized by abundant use of pictorial (like real pictures) signs and softer color. This is called his romantic or concrete period. It led to the last phase of his art, spent in France, which was a synthesis (blending) of his previous periods. The paintings of his Paris period have splendid color, rich invention, and delightful humor. In 1939 Kandinsky became a French citizen. He died on December 13, 1944, in Neuilly-sur-Seine, France.



Wassily Kandinsky.

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Kandinsky is still greatly admired today for his own paintings and for being the originator of abstract art. He invented a language of abstract forms with which he replaced the forms of nature. He wanted to mirror the universe in his own visionary world. He felt that painting possessed the same power as music and that sign, line, and color ought to correspond to the vibrations of the human soul.

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IMMANUEL KANT

Born: April 22, 1724

Königsberg , East Prussia
(now Kaliningrad, Russia)

Died: February 12, 1804

Königsberg, East Prussia

German philosopher

The major works of the German philosopher Immanuel Kant offer an analysis of theoretical and moral reason and the ability of human judgment. He had a great influence on the intellectual movements of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Childhood and education

The fourth of nine children of Johann Georg and Anna Regina Kant, Immanuel Kant was born in the town of Königsberg, East Prussia, on April 22, 1724. Johann Kant was a harness maker, and the large family lived a humble life. The family belonged to a Protestant religious group of Pietists (a German religious movement whose members strongly believed in religious experience and

biblical study), and a concern for religion touched every aspect of their lives. Although Kant became critical of formal religion, he continued to admire the “praiseworthy conduct” of Pietists. Kant’s elementary education was at Saint George’s Hospital School and then at the Collegium Fredericianum, a Pietist school, where he remained from 1732 until 1740. Here he gained a deep appreciation for the classics of Latin literature, especially the poet Lucretius.

In 1740 Kant entered the University of Königsberg. He became interested in philosophy, mathematics, and the natural sciences. The death of Kant’s father in 1746 left him without income. He became a private tutor for seven years in order to have enough time and money to continue his education. During this period Kant published several papers dealing with scientific questions. The most important was the “General Natural History and Theory of the Heavens” in 1755. In this work Kant concluded the origin of the solar system was a result of the gravitational (having to do with the force exerted between bodies of matter) connection of atoms (the smallest pieces of matter). In the same year Kant presented a Latin treatise, “On Fire,” to qualify for the doctoral degree.

Kant spent the next fifteen years (1755–1770) as a lecturer. In order to live he lectured between twenty-six and twenty-eight hours a week. Despite this enormous teaching burden, Kant continued to publish papers on various topics. He finally achieved a professorship at Königsberg in 1770.

Critique of Pure Reason

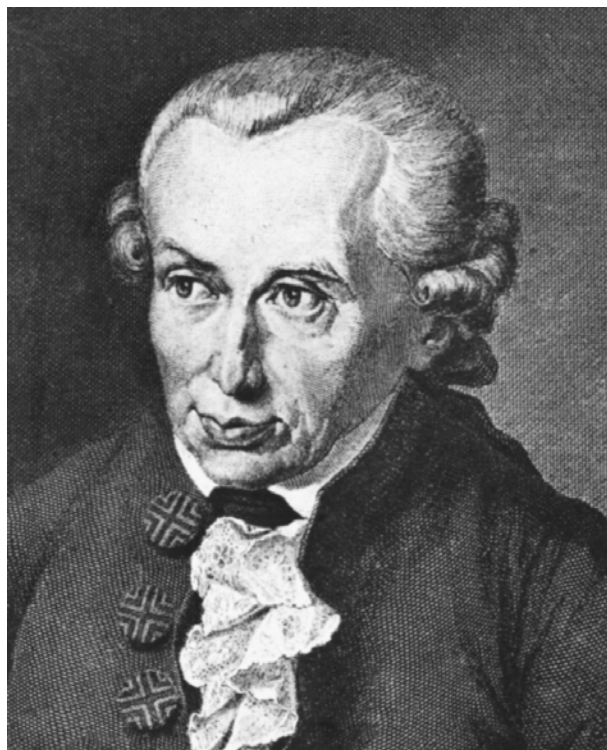
At the age of fifty-seven Kant published the first edition of the *Critique of Pure Reason*

(1781; 2d ed. 1787). This enormous work is one of the most important and difficult books in Western thought. The aim of the critique is to explain how experience and reason interact in thought and understanding. The *Critique of Pure Reason* is a methodology (a collection of methods and rules) of how “understanding and reason [the power of understanding] can know apart from experience.” This revolutionary proposal means that the mind organizes our experiences into the way the world appears and the way that we think about the world. Any experience is placed into one of these categories so that it can be understood. Kant also wrote that the mind can have knowledge of things that have or have not been experienced, but these are only possibilities. Kant does not say that the mind creates objects—only the conditions under which objects are noticed and understood. We can never know noumenal reality (theoretical objects or ideas that are understood by thought alone) with any certainty.

Kant suggests that the theories of God, freedom, and immortality (something that goes against ideas of right and wrong) are not proved or disproved through the use of reason, nor can the use of scientific methods prove or disprove their existence. The idea of them is beyond the realm of human experience. Kant expressed that faith in God, freedom, and immortality are rational beliefs because their existence makes an orderly and moral world a possibility.

Later works

In 1783 Kant restated the main outlines of his first critique in a brief, analytic form in the *Prolegomena to Any Future Metaphysics*. In



Immanuel Kant.

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1785 he presented an early view of the practical aspects of reason in *Fundamental Principles of the Metaphysic of Morals*. In 1788 he published the *Critique of Practical Reason*.

While theoretical reason is concerned with knowledge, practical reason is concerned with will, or self-determination. There is only one human reason, but after it decides what it can know, it must determine how it shall act. Thus the freedom of the will determines how one shall lead his life. And the basic, reasonable principle of a free morality (a morality that one is free to choose) is some universal and necessary law

which follows. This principle is called by Kant the “Categorical Imperative,” which states that a man should act in a way that is acceptable and applicable to all people. In questioning the outcome of man’s freedom, Kant insists that practical reason assumes the immortality of the soul and the existence of God as the conditions for true freedom.

In 1790 Kant completed his third critique, which attempts to draw these conflicting ideas together. The *Critique of Judgment* attempts to connect the concepts of nature with the concepts of freedom.

Although Kant continued to write until shortly before his death, the “critical works” are the source of his influence. Only a life of extraordinary self-discipline enabled him to accomplish his task. He was barely five feet tall and extremely thin, and his health was fragile. Toward the end of his life he became increasingly antisocial and bitter over the growing loss of his memory and capacity for work. Kant became totally blind and finally died on February 12, 1804, in Krönigsberg.

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JOHN KEATS

Born: October 31, 1795

London, England

Died: February 23, 1821

Rome, Italy

English poet

The English Romantic poet John Keats stressed that man’s quest for happiness and fulfillment is thwarted (prevented from taking place) by the sorrow and corruption inherent (existing as an essential characteristic) in human nature. His works are marked with rich imagery and melodic beauty.

Early life

John Keats was born in London, England, on October 31, 1795, the first of Thomas and Frances Keats’s five children. Thomas was working as a stable manager for John Jennings when he met Jennings’s daughter, Francis. Thomas, known for his charm, energy, and respectability, crossed the social barrier and won Francis’s heart and the two were married. Both of John’s parents were affectionate and loving toward their children. John especially shared a close relationship with his mother. His father died in an accident in 1804. His mother, after a second marriage and divorce, died from a lung disease in 1810.

In 1811 Keats became an apprentice (worked for someone to learn a trade with little or no pay) to an apothecary (druggist) in Edmonton, England. There Keats first tried his hand at writing and produced four stanzas (short poems) entitled “Imitation of Spenser.”

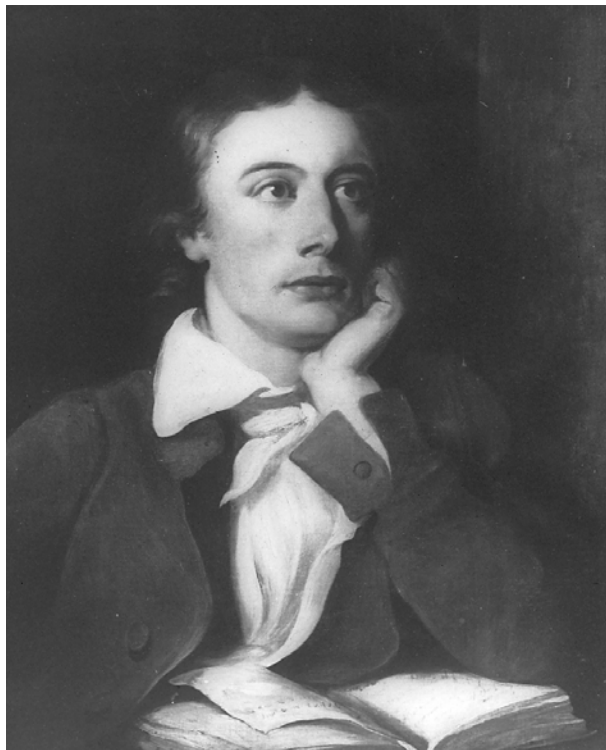
These were inspired by the poem “Fairie Queene” by Edmund Spenser (c. 1552–1599).

On October 2, 1815, Keats started medical studies at Guy’s Hospital. He was a conscientious (careful) student, but poetry gained an increasing hold on his imagination. It is thought that Keats was influenced at this time by the boldness evident in a translation by George Chapman (c. 1559–1634) of the *Odyssey* by the Greek poet Homer (c. 850 B.C.E.). His first volume of poems was published in March 1817.

Publication of *Endymion*

Keats’s next work, *Endymion: A Poetic Romance*, was published in May 1818. Keats turned the story of Endymion, a mythical shepherd, into an allegory (a narrative in which abstract ideas are represented by people) of the romantic longing to overcome the boundaries of ordinary human experience. Endymion realizes that ultimate identification with transcendence (rising above the universe) is to be achieved through humble acceptance of human limitations and of the misery built into man’s condition. Keats’s letters reveal that at this time several of his friends were ill. His brother was very unwell, and he himself, after a bad cold, prophetically (foretelling) feared in October 1817 that “I shall never be again secure in Robustness (health and strength).”

In early 1818 Keats turned to straightforward narrative in *Isabella*, which is based on a story by Boccaccio (1313–1375). Its theme was connected with Keats’s more philosophical (pertaining to inquiry concerning the source and nature of human knowledge) pre-occupations—the beauty and greatness of tragic love.



John Keats.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Later works

Keats started work on *Hyperion* in September 1818. An essential part of its purpose was to describe the growth of the Greek god Apollo into a true poet through ever deeper acceptance and understanding of change and sorrow. But Keats was unable to get ahead with it for a number of reasons, including impaired health, negative reception of *Endymion* by an influential critic, and the death of his brother, Tom.

In spring 1819 Keats turned once more to verse narrative. He first produced the opulent “Eve of St. Agnes” in deliberate revulsion (extreme displeasure) against what he now

saw as the “mawkish” (sickly sentimental) sentimentality of *Isabella*. This was followed by “La Belle Dame Sans Merci,” a simple narrative poem that tells of the mysterious seduction of a medieval knight by another of Keats’s elusive, enigmatic (mysterious), half-divine ladies. Each poem embodies an important trend in Keats’s poetry, a longing mixed with fear and diffidence (lack of self-confidence) for some experience beyond human mortality.

These were followed in the spring and summer of 1819 by the first of his great odes: “Ode to Psyche,” “Ode on a Grecian Urn,” and “Ode to a Nightingale.” These, together with the later “Ode on Indolence” and “Ode on Melancholy,” are acutely imaginative explorations of the intricate (complex) relation between sorrow and bliss, life and dream.

During the latter half of 1819 Keats wrote his only drama, *Otho the Great*. He also made his last attempt to define the function of the poet in *The Fall of Hyperion*. However, like the earlier *Hyperion*, it was never completed and remains a tantalizing (fascinating) fragment of cryptic (mysterious) beauty.

His last years

Significantly, the last long poem that Keats wrote was *Lamia*. This is a brilliantly ambiguous (likely to be interpreted in more than one way) piece which leads to the conclusion that both the artist and the lover live on deceptive illusions (a world of the imagination not based on reality and likely to mislead). His third and last volume, *Lamia, Isabella, The Eve of St. Agnes and Other Poems*, was printed in July 1820.

In September 1820, although his health had been declining for some time, Keats left for

Italy on an invitation from the poet Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822). He died in Rome on February 23, 1821, at the age of twenty-five.

All of Keats’s poetry is filled with a mysterious yet uplifting sense of beauty and joy. His works explore many possibilities but do not insist on any one answer to the enduring problems of life. The experience of life, not its perfect understanding, was Keats’s major concern.

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HELEN KELLER

Born: June 27, 1880

Tuscumbia, Alabama

Died: June 1, 1968

Westport, Connecticut

American activist for the physically disabled

Though both blind and deaf, American lecturer and author Helen Keller (1880–1968) traveled the world

over, fighting for improvement in the education and life of the physically handicapped.

Helen becomes deaf and blind

Helen Adams Keller was born in Tusculum, Alabama, on June 27, 1880. Her parents were Captain Arthur H. Keller and Katherine Adams Keller. Her father was a veteran of the confederate army (army that fought to separate from the United States during the Civil War, which lasted from 1861 to 1865). He also was the editor of the local newspaper, the *North Alabamian*. Helen was born a normal child. She started speaking when she was six months old. By the time she was a year old, she was able to communicate with her parents and she had also learned to walk. When Helen was eighteen months old an illness developed that the doctor described as brain congestion. She ran a high fever for many days, and then the fever was gone. Helen was left deaf and blind from the illness. Helen became a very wild, unruly child. She would scream and kick when she was angry and giggle and laugh when happy. She developed many of her own signals to communicate her needs with her parents.

Her early learning

When Helen was six, her mother contacted Dr. Alexander Graham Bell (1847–1922), whom she had heard was working on devices to help the deaf. Bell met with Helen and her parents and suggested that they contact the Perkins Institute for the Blind in Boston, Massachusetts. In March 1887 Anne Sullivan (1866–1936), a teacher at the institute, came to serve as Helen's teacher. Anne was twenty-one years old and had sight limitations of her own. One month after her arrival,

Sullivan had taught Keller the word "water." She did this by using her fingers to spell letters into Helen's hand. From this she understood that objects had names, and that her teacher spelled these names into her hand. This unlocked a whole new world of learning for Helen.

Anne Sullivan was with Helen day and night, constantly spelling into her hand the words and ideas of things going on around them. Helen was a quick learner. In only three years she learned the manual alphabet (sign language), the Braille alphabet (an alphabet created by Louis Braille [1809–1852] for the blind that relies on raised dots to communicate), and she could read and write.

Schools and education

Helen wanted to learn to speak, and in 1890 she began taking speech classes at the Horace Mann School for the Deaf in Boston. She worked diligently at learning to speak. After twenty-five years of hard work and practice, Helen was able to speak in a voice that others could understand.

From 1894 to 1896 Helen attended the Wright-Humason School for the Deaf. Here she continued to work on improving her communication, as well as her math, French, German, and geography. In this way Helen prepared herself for college and went on to Cambridge School for Young Ladies. Anne Sullivan attended every class with Helen and interpreted the lectures and books for her, as they were not in Braille. By the time she was sixteen, Keller had passed the admissions examinations for Radcliffe College; in 1904 she graduated cum laude (with honors). This was all done with the assistance of Anne Sullivan interpreting the lectures and texts.



Helen Keller.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Devotes life to helping others

As a young woman Keller became determined to learn about the world and to improve the lives of others. With insight, energy, and deep devotion to humanity, she lectured throughout the world, worked to forward her ideas in Congress, and wrote thousands of letters asking for contributions to finance efforts to improve the welfare of the blind. She visited hospitals and helped blind soldiers. She taught the blind to be courageous and to make their lives rich, productive, and beautiful for others and for themselves.

Keller associated with some of the greatest people of her time, including Alexander

Graham Bell, Mark Twain (1835–1910), Andrew Carnegie (1835–1919), John D. Rockefeller Sr. (1839–1937), and Presidents Grover Cleveland (1838–1908), Calvin Coolidge (1872–1933), and Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924). She authored such books as *Helen Keller's Journal*, *Out of the Dark*, *Midstream: My Later Life, My Religion*, *The Song of the Stone Wall*, *The World I Live In*, and *The Story of My Life*.

Sullivan served as Keller's counselor and companion. When Keller died in 1968 her name had become a worldwide symbol of what the human spirit can accomplish despite severe physical limitations.

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GENE
KELLY

Born: August 23, 1912
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Died: February 2, 1996

Beverly Hills, California

American dancer, actor, and choreographer

Although Gene Kelly established his reputation as an actor and a dancer, his contribution to the Hollywood, California, musical also includes choreography (creating dances) and movie direction.

Athletic childhood

Eugene Curran Kelly was born in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, on August 23, 1912, the middle son of five children. His father was Canadian-born and loved sports, especially hockey. Every winter Kelly Sr. would flood the family backyard and make an ice rink for hockey.

Kelly Jr. later credited hockey for some of his dance steps, which he described as “wide open and close to the ground.” At fifteen Kelly played with a semiprofessional ice hockey team. He also played football, baseball, and participated in gymnastics.

Turns to dancing

Kelly's other major influence was his mother, who loved the theater. She was the one who sent him to dancing lessons. At first Kelly did not want to continue with his dance lessons because the other students made fun of him. But then he discovered that the girls liked a boy who could dance, so he decided to stick with the lessons.

In 1929 Kelly left for Pennsylvania State College, but because of the Great Depression, his family lost their money. The Great Depression (1929–39) was a time of worldwide economic trouble that led to global

unemployment and poverty. Kelly had to move back home and attend the University of Pittsburgh in order to save the cost of room and board. While at the university, Kelly worked at a variety of odd jobs to pay his tuition: he dug ditches, worked at a soda fountain, and pumped gas. Kelly's mother began to work as a receptionist at a local dance school. She came up with the idea of the family running its own dance studio. They did and the studio was a big success.

After Kelly graduated from the University of Pittsburgh he taught dance for another six years. In 1937 he left for New York City. He believed that he was talented enough to find work and he was right. He got a job in theater his first week in New York. Kelly's big break came in 1940, when he was cast as the lead in the Rodgers and Hart musical *Pal Joey*.

Goes to Hollywood

Producers from Hollywood saw the show in New York and offered Kelly a contract with Metro Goldwyn Mayer (MGM). He worked for MGM for the next sixteen years. His first Hollywood film was *For Me and My Gal* (1942), in which he starred opposite Judy Garland (1922–1969). Garland was only twenty, but already a major star. She had seen Kelly's work and insisted that Kelly have the role. She tutored (taught) him how to act for the movies.

Kelly made a breakthrough with *Cover Girl* (1944). At one point in the film, his character dances with a mirror image of himself. It caught all the critics' attention. Kelly told *Interview* magazine, “[That is] when I began to see that you could make dances for cinema that weren't just photographed stage dancing. That was my big insight into Hollywood, and Hollywood's big insight into me.”



Gene Kelly.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Experiments with film

Kelly's experiments with dance and with film technique included combining the two, as demonstrated in such films as *Anchors Aweigh* (1945), where he danced with a cartoon mouse, *An American in Paris* (1951), and *Invitation to the Dance* (1956). His first attempts at film choreography relied on the established formulas of the film musical. Later he developed a system of choreography made for the camera that took into account camera setups, movement, and editing. Many people believe that he was the major influence in creating a new form of American dance, one that was different from

the more formal and ballet styles of European dance. Kelly danced in a more energetic, athletic way.

Kelly often played a guy who felt that the best way to get what he wanted was to impress people. However, he learns that his brashness (self-confidence without politeness) offends people. In the end he succeeds by being himself. Kelly's characters had much of the "average guy" in them and this quality appealed to audiences. His characters seemed so natural that people who saw his films did not always realize how very sophisticated (complex) his dancing and choreography were.

Singin' in the Rain

Nowhere was Kelly more engaging than in 1952's *Singin' in the Rain*. One of the all-time great movie musicals, and perhaps the film most associated with Kelly, this comedy is about late-1920s Hollywood and the change from silent pictures to "talkies" (movies with sound). *Singin' in the Rain* showcased the considerable acting, singing, and dancing gifts of Debbie Reynolds (1932–) and Donald O'Connor (1925–), but it was Kelly who danced away with the movie. His dance to the title song has become an icon (something that is regarded as the ideal) of American entertainment. Kelly made a drenching rainstorm and umbrella his partners, and communicated the joy in movement at the heart of all of his performances.

Gene Kelly died on February 2, 1996, in Beverly Hills, California. He will always be remembered for his incredible contribution to the movie musical through dance performance, choreography, and photography.

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EDWARD KENNEDY

Born: February 22, 1932

Brookline, Massachusetts

American senator

Edward (Ted) Kennedy, brother of President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) and Robert F. Kennedy (1925–1968), entered the U.S. Senate at age thirty and has steadily gained political influence as he continues to win reelection.

Preparing for public service

Edward Moore Kennedy was born in Brookline, Massachusetts, on February 22, 1932, fourth son and last of nine children of Joseph P. (1888–1969) and Rose Fitzgerald (1890–1995) Kennedy. His father was a multimillionaire businessman. Because his family moved frequently, Kennedy attended several different private schools before enrolling in Milton Academy, near Boston, Massachusetts,

in 1946. Upon graduation from Milton in 1950 he enrolled at Harvard University. At the end of his freshman year, however, he was expelled for having another student take a Spanish exam in his place. Kennedy then enlisted for a two-year term in the army. His father's influence won him an assignment as a guard to Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers, Europe (SHAPE) in Paris.

After completing his time in the army, Kennedy returned to Harvard and graduated in 1956. He then enrolled in the University of Virginia Law School, where his natural talent for debate was sharpened. He received his law degree in 1959 and was admitted to practice in Massachusetts in the same year. In November 1958 Kennedy married Virginia Joan Bennett; they had three children.

While still a law student Edward Kennedy managed the successful Senate reelection campaign in Massachusetts of his brother John Kennedy. In 1960 he served as Western states coordinator for John's campaign for the Democratic presidential nomination. After his brother's victory in the 1960 election, Edward took a position as assistant to the district attorney of Suffolk County, Massachusetts. As preparation for running in 1962 for the remainder of John's unfinished Senate term, Edward traveled widely and made many speeches.

Becoming a national figure

At the age of thirty, Kennedy easily won election to the Senate in 1962 over Republican George Cabot Lodge (1927–). Kennedy's slogan was: "I can do more for Massachusetts." As a junior legislator, Kennedy spent most of his time watching and learning from his Senate seniors, surprising some



Edward Kennedy.

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observers who expected him to be more aggressive. A year after John Kennedy's 1963 assassination, Edward won election to his first full Senate term.

By 1967 Kennedy began to speak out against the Vietnam War (1955–75), a civil war in which U.S. forces helped South Vietnam fight against a takeover by Communist forces from North Vietnam. Kennedy focused mainly on the need for draft reform and the U.S. failure to provide for the Vietnamese war victims. After visiting South Vietnam in early 1968 he became even more critical, yet he managed to stay on good terms with the administration of President Lyndon Johnson

(1908–1973). Kennedy's life was strongly affected by the assassination of his brother Robert (1925–1968) in June 1968. After a period of withdrawal, he became more vocal in criticizing the Vietnam War and in pressing for selected social reforms. Though he denied interest in seeking the 1968 Democratic nomination, his actions clearly established him as heir to the "Kennedy legacy," and many expected that he would one day run for the presidency.

Presidential possibilities

The year 1969 began well for Kennedy, with his election as Senate majority whip (assistant leader) in January. Six months later, however, his career and reputation suffered a huge blow when, following a party, he drove his car off a narrow bridge on Chappaquiddick Island, near Massachusetts, resulting in the drowning of his companion, Mary Jo Kopechne (1940–1969). Kennedy's failure to report the accident for nearly nine hours was harshly condemned by press and public alike. In a televised speech a week later he asked the voters to advise him as to whether he should remain in office. The response was positive, as was the local court's verdict: Kennedy's sentence—for leaving the scene of an accident—was suspended.

Rumors about what really happened at Chappaquiddick did not burden him in the Senate. He was an outspoken critic of the administration of President Richard Nixon (1913–1994), opposing Nixon's antiballistic missile (ABM; a free-falling nuclear missile) installment proposal, backing various measures to end the Vietnam War, and leading the fight to lower the voting age to eighteen. Kennedy won an easy reelection in 1970,

however, he lost his majority whip post by a close vote in 1971. Freed from the responsibilities of his formal leadership post, he resumed his outspoken opposition to the Nixon administration with more energy than ever.

Many suspected that Kennedy would run for president in 1972, but he again denied any such ambitions. He refused the vice presidential nomination offered by Democratic nominee George McGovern (1922–). He turned his attention to other issues, such as handgun control and national health insurance. His 1972 book, *In Critical Condition*, was a sweeping criticism of the U.S. health care industry. In 1976 Kennedy announced again that he would not run for president even though polls showed that many people supported him. He continued to win reelection to the Senate and became chairman of its Judiciary Committee. He also loyally backed the Democratic foreign-policy programs of President Jimmy Carter (1924–).

Kennedy again emerged as the favorite in public opinion polls regarding the 1980 presidential nomination although he denied interest in the position. Finally yielding to temptation, he announced in November 1979 that he would challenge Carter for the nomination. However, his candidacy began miserably when he performed poorly in a televised interview (which revived the “Chappaquiddick issue”). The Iranian hostage crisis (an incident in which fifty-two Americans were held captive at the U.S. embassy in Iran by student protesters) and the Russian invasion of Afghanistan increased public support for Carter, at least temporarily. Carter locked up the Democratic nomination well before the party convention had even begun.

Kennedy, however, dominated the convention itself with one of his most stirring speeches.

A leader on national issues

When the Republicans gained control of the Senate in 1981, Kennedy lost his Judiciary Committee chairmanship and once again focused his energies mainly on social programs and labor issues. Kennedy emerged as an influential and constant critic of the domestic and foreign policies of President Ronald Reagan (1911–). In late 1982 Kennedy removed himself from competition for his party's presidential nomination. He remained committed to an expanded federal role in pursuit of social and economic justice, yet he showed that he was clearly capable of sensible cost cutting when necessary.

Kennedy continues to work in the Senate to benefit the people of Massachusetts and the nation. He was an author of the 1996 Health Insurance and Portability Act, which allowed those who change or lose their job to maintain health insurance, and the 1997 Children's Health Act, which increased access to health care for children age eighteen and under. To mark his contribution toward helping to fulfill the four essential freedoms for the world outlined by President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945) in 1941, Kennedy was given the 1999 Four Freedoms Award by the Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt Institute.

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JOHN F. KENNEDY

Born: May 29, 1917

Brookline, Massachusetts

Died: November 22, 1963

Dallas, Texas

American president

John F. Kennedy was the thirty-fifth president of the United States. He was the first president to reach for the moon, through the nation's space programs. He also was the first president since Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) with whom youth could identify. He made the nation see itself with new eyes. His assassination shocked the world.

Early life and family

John Fitzgerald Kennedy was born in Brookline, Massachusetts, on May 29, 1917. He was the second son of nine children born to the multimillionaire business executive

and financier Joseph P. Kennedy (1888–1969) and his wife, Rose Fitzgerald Kennedy (1890–1995). Joseph's father had served in the Massachusetts Legislature and in elective offices in Boston, Massachusetts. Rose's father, John Francis Fitzgerald (1863–1950), had been a state legislator, the mayor of Boston, and a U.S. congressman. Joseph himself had served as chairman of the Securities and Exchange Commission, chairman of the U.S. Maritime Commission, and ambassador to Great Britain (1937–40). Thus, the Kennedys were a wealthy family with a history of political and public service.

Education and the military

Kennedy attended the Canterbury parochial school (1930–31) and the Choate School (1931–35). One of his teachers later said that people in school liked him more for his personality than for his accomplishments. He was often ill during his childhood and spent much of this time reading. Kennedy enrolled at Princeton University in 1935 but illness soon forced him to withdraw. Upon recovery he went to Harvard University, where he majored in government and international relations. During his junior year at Harvard, he traveled in Europe and observed the events that were leading to World War II (1939–45; a war in which the Allies—France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, China, and from 1941 the United States—fought against the Axis powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan). He used his observations for his senior paper, which later became the best-selling book *Why England Slept* (1940).

After graduating from Harvard with honors in 1940, Kennedy went to Stanford University for graduate studies. In April 1941 he

tried to enlist in the U.S. Army but was rejected for physical reasons (a back injury received while playing football). Months later, after his back strengthened through a regimen of exercises, the U.S. Navy accepted him. He then became an intelligence officer in Washington, D.C. After the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, a U.S. Navy base in Hawaii, on December 7, 1941, the United States entered World War II. Kennedy requested active duty at sea and was given this assignment in late 1942.

War hero

Following Kennedy's training with the Motor Torpedo Boat Squadron, he was shipped to the South Pacific to fight in the war against Japan. In March 1943 he was given command of a patrol torpedo (PT) boat, a small, fast boat armed with weapons, including torpedoes. In August his boat was sliced in two by a Japanese destroyer and two of his crew were killed. Kennedy and four others clung to the half of the PT boat that remained afloat. Six other men survived in the nearby water, two wounded. In a three-hour struggle Kennedy got the wounded crewmen to the floating wreck. When it capsized, he ordered his men to swim to a small island about three miles away. He towed one man to shore in a heroic five-hour struggle. Several days later, having displayed great courage, leadership, and endurance, Kennedy succeeded in having his men rescued.

House of Representatives

Returning to civilian life, Kennedy did newspaper work for several months, covering a United Nations conference, the Potsdam Conference, and the British elections of 1945. However, coming from a family devoted to



John F. Kennedy.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

public service, Kennedy desired a career in politics. In 1946 he became a candidate for the U.S. House of Representatives from the Massachusetts eleventh congressional district. Kennedy built a large personal organization for his campaign. On whirlwind tours he met as many voters as possible. He talked to the people in a direct, informal style about the topics that they were concerned with. In this campaign and in all the others, his brothers, sisters, and mother supported him. His brothers, Robert (1925–1968) and Edward (also called Ted; 1932–), acted as his managers, while his sisters and mother held social events to raise money for his campaigns.

Kennedy won the primary, the fall election, and reelection to the House in 1948 and again in 1950. He worked for better social welfare programs, particularly in the area of low-cost public housing (or affordable places for people to live). In 1949 he became a member of the Joint Committee on Labor-Management Relations. In this capacity, Kennedy was a strong supporter of labor, working for higher wages and better working conditions.

Kennedy supported the domestic programs of President Harry Truman (1884–1972), including social welfare programs, progressive taxation, and regulation of business. However, he did not follow Truman's policies in foreign relations. For example, he was against the fighting in Korea "or any other place in Asia where [the United States] cannot hold our defenses."

The Senate

In April 1952 Kennedy ran for a seat in the U.S. Senate against Henry Cabot Lodge, Jr. (1902–1985), a Republican liberal. Kennedy won by over seventy thousand votes. Lodge reeled under the impact. He had not run against a man, but a whole family. The Kennedy women alone had acted as hostesses to at least seventy thousand Massachusetts housewives. In 1958 Kennedy was reelected to the Senate.

Kennedy's political success was soon followed by high points in his personal life. On September 12, 1953, Kennedy married Jacqueline Lee Bouvier (1929–1994), daughter of a New York City financier, at Newport, Rhode Island. Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr. (1917–) noted that "under a veil of lovely inconsequence" Mrs. Kennedy possessed "an

all-seeing eye and ruthless judgement." John and Jacqueline Kennedy had three children: Caroline Bouvier (1957–), John Fitzgerald (1960–1999), Patrick Bouvier (who lived only a few days after his birth in 1963); another child was stillborn in 1956.

Taking his Senate seat in January 1953, Kennedy continued to support key labor, economic, and foreign relations issues. He served on the Labor and Public Welfare Committee, the Government Operations Committee, the Select Committee on Labor-Management Relations, the Foreign Relations Committee, and the Joint Economic Committee. He also worked to pass several bills to aid the Massachusetts fishing and textile industries and to improve New England's economy.

A recurrence of his old back injuries forced Kennedy to use crutches during 1954. An operation in October 1954 was followed by another in February 1955. He spent his months of illness and recovery writing biographies of Americans who had shown moral courage at difficult points in their lives. These biographies became the best-selling book *Profiles in Courage* (1956), which won the Pulitzer Prize for biography in 1957.

Kennedy's back operations were not completely successful, and he was never again entirely free from pain. After recovering from his operations, he returned to his Senate seat in May 1955. He became a strong supporter of civil rights and social welfare legislation. The Kennedy-Douglas-Ives Bill (1957) required an accounting of all employee pension and welfare funds. Kennedy also sponsored bills for providing federal financial aid to education and for relaxing U.S. immigration laws.

Kennedy becomes president

Kennedy's record in elected office and the books and articles that he had written attracted national attention. After he lost the vice presidential nomination at the Democratic National Convention in Chicago in 1956, he decided to run for president. Formally announcing his candidacy in January 1960, Kennedy made whirlwind tours and won the Democratic primaries in New Hampshire, Wisconsin, Indiana, Ohio, Oregon, Maryland, Nebraska, and West Virginia. On July 13, 1960, Kennedy was nominated for president, with Lyndon B. Johnson (1908–1973) as his running mate.

"Jack in Walk" shouted the Boston Globe after Kennedy's nomination. But it would be no easy walk to win the White House against the Republican candidate, Vice President Richard Nixon (1913–1994). At that time, Kennedy was a controversial candidate because he was a Roman Catholic. Religious prejudice, or dislike of a person based solely upon his or her religion, probably cost him over a million votes in Illinois alone. Kennedy responded to the issue of religion in his "Houston speech" on September 11, 1960. He believed in the absolute separation of church and state (the belief that one body—church or government—would have no influence over the other). To him, this meant that no priest could tell a president what to do and no Protestant clergyman could tell his parishioners how to vote. In other words, Kennedy's religion would not affect the decisions he made as president.

A series of televised debates with Nixon was crucial to Kennedy's campaign. Many viewers believed Kennedy defeated Nixon with his style. Kennedy showed the American

people that he had a sense of humor, a love of language, and a sense of the past. On November 9, 1960, John F. Kennedy became the youngest man and the first Roman Catholic in American history to win the presidency. The 1960 presidential election was one of the closest in the nation's history. Kennedy won the popular vote by only 119,450 votes. On December 19, 1960, the electoral college cast 303 votes for Kennedy and 219 for Nixon.

At the inauguration on January 20, 1960, the first U.S. president born in the twentieth century was sworn into office. Kennedy's inaugural address included the challenge: "Ask not what your country can do for you, ask what you can do for your country."

Bay of Pigs

In his short time in office, Kennedy faced many crises. The first of which involved Cuba, a country about ninety miles south of Florida. On April 17, 1961, fourteen hundred Cuban exiles, supported by the United States, invaded Cuba at the Bay of Pigs. On April 18 the Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971) sent a note to Kennedy stating that his government would help the Cuban government resist an attack. By April 20 the invasion had failed. Although the plan for training Cuban exiles had actually begun during the presidency of Dwight D. Eisenhower (1890–1969), Kennedy took responsibility for it. He had first supported the plan but later refused to commit the necessary American troops. He was aware that if the Cuban people did not rise up and back the invaders, the United States could not force them to accept a new system of government. Although the Bay of Pigs invasion was a failure, it did prove Kennedy's ability to face a disaster.

Protecting civil rights

Kennedy continued to show skill and passion for issues at home, particularly civil rights. In 1961 the Congress of Racial Equality, a civil rights group, organized people to protest segregation, or the practice of separating people based solely on their race, on buses and trains. When the showdown came, “the Kennedys,” as the president and his brother Robert, the attorney general, were known, sent six hundred Federal marshals to Alabama to protect these “Freedom Riders.” In 1962 they sent hundreds of Federal marshals to protect the rights of the first African American student to attend the University of Mississippi.

Cuban missile crisis

On October 22, 1962, Kennedy announced to the nation that the Soviet Union had sent nuclear missiles to Cuba. In response the United States had blocked all shipments of military equipment into Cuba. The United States would not allow Cuba to become a Soviet missile base, and it would regard any missile launched from Cuba “as an attack by the Soviet Union on the United States, requiring a full [military] response.”

For a week the details of the situation had been “the best kept secret in government history.” Throughout the seven days, the Kennedy administration had maintained an outward appearance of normal social and political activity. Meanwhile, American military units throughout the world were alerted.

Messages were sent back and forth between Kennedy, Khrushchev, and Pope John XXIII (1881–1963), who was volunteering as a peacemaker. During this time

Soviet ships were moving toward the area of the blockade in the Atlantic Ocean. They slowed, then stopped. On October 28, 1962, the Soviet Union said it would remove its missiles from Cuba.

One result of the crisis was the nuclear test ban treaty with the Soviet Union, which Kennedy called “the first step down the path of peace.” The treaty was signed on July 25, 1963. A “hot line” for emergency messages was also set up between Washington, D.C., and Moscow, the capital of the Soviet Union.

Vietnam

Vietnam, a country in Southeast Asia, took up more of Kennedy’s time than any other problem. The Vietnam War (1955–1975) was a civil war in which anti-Communist forces in South Vietnam, supported by the United States, were fighting against a takeover by Communist forces in North Vietnam. In 1954 President Eisenhower had offered military aid to South Vietnam and funding, and advisors were sent to the country throughout the 1950s. Although Kennedy believed that a “full-scale war in Vietnam . . . was unthinkable,” he tripled American forces in the country. Senator William Fulbright (1905–1995) suggested that Kennedy put troops in Vietnam to prove to Khrushchev that “he couldn’t be intimidated.”

The President’s last day

Kennedy was well aware of the dangers of the presidency. “Who can tell who will be president a year from now?” he would ask. On the day of his arrival in Dallas, Texas, he said that if anyone wanted to kill a president he needed only a high building and a rifle with a telescopic lens.

That day—November 22, 1963—the president was assassinated. It is generally believed that Lee Harvey Oswald (1939–1963), using a rifle equipped with a telescopic lens, was the person who fired on the president's car. Others, however, believe more than one person was responsible. All of the United States—indeed, the world—was in mourning. In Indonesia, flags were lowered to half-mast. In New Delhi, India, crowds wept in the streets.

Kennedy's legacy

Kennedy once summed up his time as “very dangerous, untidy.” He lived through two world wars, the Great Depression (a period from 1929 to 1939 during which nearly half the industrial workers in the country lost their jobs), and the nuclear age. “Life is unfair,” he remarked. And so it was to Kennedy, heaping him with both glory and tragedy. Yet, he never lost his grace, his sense of balance, or his optimism.

What Kennedy accomplished was not as important as what he stood for. As the African magazine *Transition* expressed it, “murdered with Kennedy was the first real chance for an intelligent and new leadership in the world. His death [left] us unprepared and in darkness.”

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JOHN F. KENNEDY JR.

Born: November 25, 1960

Washington, D.C.

Died: July 16, 1999

Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts

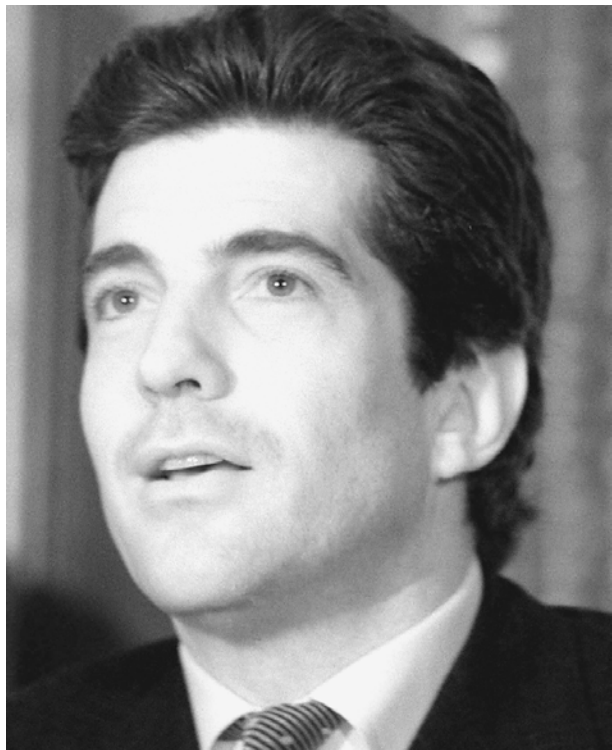
American magazine publisher and lawyer

John F. Kennedy Jr., son of the late president John F. Kennedy (1917–1963), avoided politics and followed his own path as a magazine publisher. After attending his own father's funeral as a child, Kennedy, Jr., saw a series of early deaths in his family. He himself was claimed by a tragic accident in the prime of his life.

President's son

John Fitzgerald Kennedy Jr., was born on November 25, 1960, the son of John F.

KENNEDY, JOHN F., JR.



John F. Kennedy Jr.

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Kennedy (1917–1963), who had just won election as the thirty-fifth president of the United States, and Jacqueline (“Jackie”) Kennedy (1929–1994). He was the first child ever born to a president-elect. The Kennedys gave the nation the closest model they had ever had to a royal family. John-John, as he became known, and his sister Caroline regularly made the news and helped to create an image of the Kennedys as an ideal American family.

While campaigning in Dallas, Texas, on November 22, 1963, the president was shot and killed. Just three months earlier, the family had grieved when new baby Patrick died two days after his birth. The death of John F.

Kennedy shocked the nation, and the image of the president’s three-year-old son at the funeral, wearing a short coat that revealed his bare knees, saluting his father’s coffin as it passed, was heartbreaking.

Always in the public eye

In 1964 Jackie Kennedy moved with her children to an apartment in New York City, where she hoped they might be able to avoid the media. The family would soon suffer another difficult loss. On June 6, 1968, the late president’s brother, Robert Kennedy (1925–1968), who had become a father figure to his nephew and niece, was assassinated in California while campaigning for the Democratic presidential nomination. Four months later, Jackie Kennedy married the wealthy businessman Aristotle Onassis (1906–1975).

The young Kennedy would sometimes get into fights with reporters and photographers who followed him and his sister around. The media criticized him for being self-centered and for his less than outstanding record at school. After high school he became more serious about his education. First, he studied environmental issues at a school in Africa. He would later return to Africa following his freshman year at Brown University in Providence, Rhode Island. While in Africa he worked with a mining firm in Johannesburg, South Africa, and met student and government leaders in Zimbabwe. During his college years he also worked with the Peace Corps in Guatemala to help earthquake victims.

After graduating with a bachelor’s degree in American history in 1982, Kennedy studied at the University of Delhi in India. When

he returned to the United States he went to work for the New York City Office of Business Development in 1984. In 1986 he entered New York University Law School, mainly to please his mother. At the 1988 Democratic National Convention he gave a speech to introduce his uncle, Senator Edward Kennedy (1932–), that earned him a two-minute standing ovation and led many to wonder if he was preparing to run for office. He passed his bar exam (a test that a person must pass before he or she is allowed to practice law) on the third try and was hired in August 1989 as an assistant prosecutor in the Manhattan office of New York district attorney Robert Morgenthau (1919–). He won all six of the cases that he prosecuted in court before leaving the position in 1993.

New ventures

In September 1995 Kennedy cofounded *George* magazine, which had the slogan “Not politics as usual.” He wrote essays and interviewed people for the publication. Some observers suggested that his magazine venture was a way for him to gain the public-affairs knowledge that he would need in order to run for office, but he denied that he was planning to enter politics. On September 21, 1996, he married Carolyn Bessette (1966–1999) in a private ceremony on Cumberland Island off the coast of Georgia. It was one of the few major events in his life during which he managed to avoid publicity. He and his wife appeared to be a happy couple as they made their home in New York.

On July 16, 1999, Kennedy, his wife, and her sister Lauren Bessette (1964–1999) were declared missing at sea after their plane crashed into the water near the coast of

Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts. Kennedy was an amateur pilot who had earned his license in April 1998. All three bodies were eventually recovered from the wreckage and buried at sea on July 22, 1999.

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ROBERT KENNEDY

Born: November 20, 1925

Brookline, Massachusetts

Died: June 6, 1968

Los Angeles, California

American statesman, senator, and attorney general

Robert Kennedy was a U.S. senator and the attorney general in the presidential administration of his brother John F. Kennedy (1917–1963). Like his brother, Robert was extremely charming and a popular political figure during the

KENNEDY, ROBERT



Robert Kennedy.

Courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration.

1960s. Tragically, much like his brother before him, Robert's assassination would leave behind many questions as to what could have been.

Early life as a Kennedy

Robert Francis Kennedy was born on November 20, 1925, in Brookline, Massachusetts, to Joseph (1888–1969) and Rose (1890–1995) Kennedy. Robert enjoyed a privileged childhood and was surrounded by a loving and powerful family. Rose's father was the mayor of Boston. Joseph was a wealthy businessman and would later

become U.S. ambassador, or official representative, to Great Britain.

Kennedy's childhood was greatly shaped by his father's values. Joseph Sr. always wanted his children to try their hardest, no matter what they were doing. The Kennedys raised their children as Roman Catholics, and Robert was very religious throughout his young life and served as an altar boy. The seventh of nine children born to the Kennedys, Robert constantly sought the attention of his two older brothers, Joseph P. Kennedy Jr. (1915–1944) and John F. Kennedy. Although slightly smaller than his brothers, Robert would develop the good looks and charm that would help the Kennedys win over the American public.

The Kennedys lived in England during his father's ambassadorship and the family quickly became a favorite with the English press. In 1939, with the threat of war hanging over Europe, Joseph Kennedy sent his family back to America, fearing for their safety.

Student and soldier

Robert graduated from Milton Academy before entering Harvard. His college career was interrupted by the outbreak of World War II (1939–45), in which the United States led the Allied forces against Germany, Japan, and Italy. After his oldest brother, Joseph, was killed in combat, Robert joined the navy and was assigned as a lieutenant. Later, he was assigned to the destroyer *Joseph P. Kennedy Jr.*, which was named in honor of his brother.

In 1946 he returned to Harvard, where he played football, and he graduated in 1948. He then earned his law degree from the University of Virginia Law School and was admit-

ted to the Massachusetts bar (an association for lawyers) in 1951. While at school he met Ethel Skakel (1928–), his sister's college roommate. Robert and Ethel were married in June 1950. They would have eleven children together (the last one was born six months after Kennedy's death).

A political career begins

In 1951 Kennedy joined the Criminal Division of the U.S. Department of Justice. He resigned the following year to run John F. Kennedy's successful campaign for U.S. senator. In 1953 Robert was appointed one of fifteen assistant counsels, or advisors, to the Senate Subcommittee on Investigations under Senator Joseph McCarthy (1908–1957). At the time, McCarthy was leading a nationwide "witch-hunt" for Communists, or people who believe in a political system in which property and goods are owned by the government. McCarthy's movement gained momentum through America's fear of Communists living in the country. But later that year, Kennedy resigned when Democratic members of this subcommittee walked out in protest against McCarthy's forceful methods of investigation.

Kennedy rejoined the Senate's permanent Subcommittee on Investigations as chief counsel for the Democratic minority in 1954. The following year, when the Democrats reorganized this committee under Senator George McClellan, Kennedy became chief counsel and staff director. That year the U.S. Junior Chamber of Commerce elected him one of "ten outstanding young men." In 1955, at his own expense, Kennedy joined Supreme Court Justice William O. Douglas (1898–1980) on a tour of several Soviet

republics. (The republics were Communist states that made up the Soviet Union.)

Kennedy became chief counsel to the Senate Select Committee on Improper Activities in the Labor or Management Field organized under McClellan in 1957. His major accomplishment was the investigation of corruption, or dishonest activity, in the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, a powerful labor union. The hearings became front-page news, especially Kennedy's prosecution of the union's president, James Hoffa (1913–c.1975). Some union leaders believed these hearings were more like persecution, or a public harassment, of Hoffa. Later, Kennedy was also responsible for several additional investigations of labor and management abuses.

A Kennedy in the White House

In 1960 Kennedy managed his brother's successful presidential campaign. When John appointed Robert U.S. attorney general, many cried nepotism, the act of favoring family members. But Robert's role in his brother's cabinet was unique, and he was virtually the president's other self. Shoulder to shoulder, the brothers stood together. The Kennedy administration carefully waded through civil rights cases, the growing Vietnam War (1955–75; a civil war in which U.S. forces helped South Vietnam fight against a takeover by Communist forces from North Vietnam), and the Cuban missile crisis, when the nation held its breath as the president narrowly avoided conflict with Communist Cuba and the Soviet Union.

Tragically, the partnership would not last. John F. Kennedy was killed by an assassin's bullet in Dallas, Texas, in 1963. Distressed by the loss of his brother, Robert

soon resigned from the administration of President Lyndon Johnson (1908–1973). Kennedy ran successfully for New York State senator in 1964. Many wondered why Kennedy chose to run in New York instead of his native Virginia. Kennedy was thinking of the presidency by now, and Virginia was no power base. As a senator Kennedy achieved a splendid record, and his popularity began to grow and rival that of his brother's.

Presidential candidate and a tragic ending

Kennedy leaped into the presidential race in 1968. He was the perfect candidate to oppose Eugene McCarthy (1916–). Kennedy's entrance bitterly divided liberal Democrats (those in favor of change). Kennedy won the support of activists as he had come to sympathize with the African Americans' drive for "black power." He could reach and unite young people, activists, African Americans, and blue-collar Roman Catholics. Meanwhile, the white South hated him, big business distrusted him, and middle-class, reform Democrats were generally suspicious of him. Just after midnight on June 5, 1968, Kennedy was gunned down by an assassin. He died a day later.

Robert Kennedy's tragic death robbed the nation of one of its most dedicated and popular politicians. For most of his life, Kennedy fought for equal rights, improving education, housing the poor, and many other issues of the day. Robert had been no copy of his brother John. In some ways he was more intense and more committed than his brother had been. Yet he shared John's personal philosophy that one man could make a difference.

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JOHANNES KEPLER

Born: December 27, 1571

Weil, Swabia, Germany

Died: November 15, 1630

Regensburg, Bavaria, Germany

German astronomer

The German astronomer Johannes Kepler's discovery of three basic laws governing the motion of planets made him one of the chief founders of modern astronomy (the study of the universe and its stars and planets).

Early life

Johannes Kepler was born on December 27, 1571, in Weil, Germany. He was the son of Heinrich and Katharina Guldenmann Kepler. His father was a mercenary (a soldier serving only for money). Although a member of the Protestant faith, his father helped put down a Protestant uprising in the Low Countries (Belgium, Holland, and Luxembourg).

Kepler's parents allowed him to watch the great comet of 1577 and an eclipse (passing into shadow) of the Moon. Kepler was a sickly child but an excellent student. At thirteen he entered a religious training school at Adelberg, Germany.

Following Kepler's graduation from the University of Tübingen in 1591, he became interested in astronomy, particularly the theories of Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543), who stated that the Earth moved around the Sun in a circle. The University of Tübingen recommended Kepler for the post of the "mathematician of the province" in Graz, Austria. He arrived there in 1594 and began composition of the almanac, in which the major events of the coming year were predicted. His first almanac was a success. The occurrence of two events that he had predicted, an invasion by the Turks and a severe winter, established his reputation. In 1597 Kepler married Barbara Muehleck. Of their five children only one boy and one girl reached adulthood.



Johannes Kepler.

Work in astronomy

Kepler sought the job of assistant to Tycho Brahe (1546–1601), astrologer (one who interprets the positions of stars and planets and their effect on human affairs) and mathematician to Rudolph II (1552–1612), in Prague, Czechoslovakia. Kepler took his new position in 1600. When Brahe died the following year, Kepler was appointed to replace him. His first job was to prepare Brahe's collection of studies in astronomy for publication, which came out between 1601 and 1602.

Kepler was also left in charge of Brahe's records, which forced him to make an

assumption that led to a new theory about the orbits of all the planets. A difference between his theory and Brahe's data could be explained only if the orbit of Mars was not circular but elliptical (oval-shaped). This meant that the orbits of all planets were elliptical (Kepler's first law). This helped prove another of his statements. It is known as Kepler's second law, according to which the line joining a planet to the sun sweeps over equal areas in equal times in its elliptical orbit.

Kepler published these laws in his discussion of the orbit of the planet Mars, the *Astronomia nova* (1609). The two laws were clearly spelled out in the book's table of con-

tents. They must have been seen by any careful reader alert enough to recognize a new idea of such importance. Still, the Italian astronomer Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) failed to use the laws in his printed works—although they would have helped his defense of Copernicus’s ideas.

New jobs and the third law

In 1611 Rudolph II stepped down from the throne, and Kepler immediately looked for a new job. He obtained the post of province mathematician of Linz, Austria. By the time he moved there in 1612 with his two children, his wife and his favorite son, Friedrich, were dead. Kepler’s fourteen years in Linz were marked by his second marriage to Susan Reuttinger, and by his repeated efforts to save his mother from being tried as a witch.

Kepler also published two important works while in Linz. In the *Harmonice mundi* (1618) his third law was announced. It stated that the average distance of a planet from the sun, raised to the third power, divided by the square of the time it takes for the planet to complete one orbit, is the same for all planets. Kepler believed that nature followed numeric relationships since God created it according to “weight, measure and number.” Kepler used the same idea in describing geometry (the study of points, lines, angles, and surfaces). Kepler’s second work, the *Epitome astronomiae Copernicanae* (published 1618–21), proposed a physical explanation of the motions of planets, namely, “magnetic arms” extending from the sun.

Kepler wandered over Europe in the last three years of his life. He was in Ulm, Germany, when his *Tabulae Rudolphinae* (1628)

was published. It not only added the positions of over two hundred stars to those contained in Brahe’s published works, but it also provided planetary tables that became the standard for the next century. Kepler died on November 15, 1630. He was a unique symbol of the change over from the old to the new spirit of science.

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JACK KEROUAC

Born: March 12, 1922

Lowell, Massachusetts

Died: October 21, 1969

St. Petersburg, Florida

American writer

Jack Kerouac, an American writer, is best known for *On the Road*, (1957) which describes his travels into the American West. He is known as the father of the Beat Generation, younger intellectuals who rejected traditional values of society.

Early years

Born March 12, 1922, in Lowell, Massachusetts, Jean-Louis Lebris de Kerouac was the son of Leo Kerouac, a printer, and Gabrielle Levesque, a factory worker. Kerouac loved to read and wanted to be a writer from his earliest childhood. He did not speak English until he was five years old, using instead a combination of French and English used by the many French-Canadians who settled in New England. Kerouac's older brother Gerard died at age nine; he also had an older sister. At age eleven Kerouac began writing novels and made-up accounts of horse races, football games, and baseball games.

Kerouac received a football scholarship to Columbia University in New York City. At age seventeen he went to Horace Mann High School in New York City to improve his grades and increase his weight. In 1940 Kerouac arrived at Columbia but broke his leg in the second game of the season. After the injury he began to pursue his true passion—literature. Kerouac began to cut class regularly; he studied the style of writer Thomas Wolfe (1900–1938) and hung out on the New York City streets. In 1941 Kerouac had an argument with Columbia's football coach and left school.

Outside influences

Kerouac worked briefly at a gas station and as a sports reporter for a newspaper in Lowell. He then signed on to work aboard the *S. S. Dorchester* bound for Greenland. After that trip Kerouac returned to Columbia for a short stay. In 1943 he joined the Navy, but he was honorably discharged after six months. Kerouac spent the war years working as a merchant seaman and hanging



Jack Kerouac.

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around Columbia with intellectuals such as writers William Burroughs (1914–1997) and Allen Ginsburg (1926–1997). He wrote two novels during this time, *The Sea Is My Brother* and *And The Hippos Were Boiled In Their Tanks*, with Burroughs.

Kerouac married Edie Parker in 1944, but the marriage lasted only two months. In 1947 Neal Cassady, a car thief and ladies' man who was considered something of a genius, visited New York and asked Kerouac to give him writing lessons. When Cassady returned to Denver, Colorado, Kerouac followed. After a few weeks in Denver, Kerouac wandered into California, beginning a four-

year period of travel throughout the West. When not on the road, he was in New York working on his novel *The Town and The City*, which was published in 1950.

Most famous work

Now married to Joan Haverty, whom Kerouac proposed to after knowing her for only a few days, Kerouac began to experiment with a more natural writing style. He wanted to write the way he lived: once and with no editing. In April 1951 Kerouac threaded a huge roll of paper into his typewriter and wrote the single 175,000-word paragraph that became *On The Road*. The more than 100-foot scroll was written in three weeks but was not published for seven years. Sal and Neal, the main characters, scoff at established values and live by a romantic code born out off the West. They are described as “performing our one noble function of the time, *move*.” And to Kerouac, with movement comes wisdom and meaning.

In the time between writing *On The Road* and its publication, Kerouac took many road trips, ended his second marriage, became depressed and addicted to drugs and alcohol, and did his most ambitious writing. Kerouac often wrote complete works through all-night, week-long sessions. His other works include *Visions of Cody* (1952), *Dr. Sax* (1952), *Maggie Cassidy* (1953) (a romantic tale of his teenage days), *Mexico City Blues* and *Tristessa* (both 1955), and *Visions of Gerard*, *The Scripture of the Golden Eternity*, and *Old Angel Midnight* (all 1956).

Spokesman for a generation

When *On The Road* was published in 1957, Kerouac became instantly famous and

a spokesman for the Beat Generation, young people in the 1950s and 1960s who scorned middle-class values. Kerouac frequently appeared drunk, and interviews with him usually turned into arguments. In 1958 he wrote *The Dharma Bums*, a follow-up to *On The Road*. He then stopped writing for four years. By 1960 he was an alcoholic and had suffered a nervous breakdown. Kerouac died of massive stomach bleeding on October 21, 1969, with a pad in his lap and pen in his hand. He was buried with the rest of his family near Lowell.

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CHARLES F.
K E T T E R I N G

Born: August 29, 1876

Loudonville, Ohio

Died: November 25, 1958

Dayton, Ohio

American engineer

Charles F. Kettering, first as an independent inventor and later as head of research for General Motors Corporation, conducted research that established him as one of the most creative Americans of his generation.

Early years

Charles Francis Kettering was born on August 29, 1876, on a farm near Loudonville, Ohio, to Jacob and Martha Hunter Kettering. He was the fourth of five children. He was an excellent student who loved to read, and he also showed an early interest in trying to find better ways of doing things. His brother Adam, in Stuart W. Leslie's *Boss Kettering*, describes how young Charles tried "half the tools on the farm" to find the best way to pick potatoes. After high school graduation Kettering taught three years in country and small-town schools to make money to pay for college. Entering Ohio State University at age twenty-two, he dropped out in his sophomore year because of poor eyesight. Kettering worked for two years as a telephone lineman and then returned to Ohio State, graduating at age twenty-eight.

The NCR and Delco era

After Kettering received his degree he took a job as an experimental engineer with National Cash Register Company (NCR) in Dayton, Ohio. During his five years there he created a low-cost printing cash register; created an electric cash register, doing away with the hand crank; developed a system that tied charge phones to cash registers; and developed an accounting machine for banks. In 1905 he married Olive Williams of Ashland, Ohio. The couple had one son.

Having developed a better ignition (starting) system for autos while working "on the side" for NCR, Kettering, with the help of NCR's general manager Colonel Edward A. Deeds and others who put up money, organized Dayton Engineering Laboratories Company (Delco) in 1909. That year an order from Cadillac for eight thousand ignition systems led to the creation of an electric starter, first offered on Cadillac cars in 1912 and on many other makes the following year. Kettering and Delco also improved auto lighting systems and developed a dependable way to generate electricity on farms. Delco grew into a large manufacturing firm as well as a research site.

The General Motors years

In 1915 Colonel Deeds, a good man with business details, joined Delco, teaming up with Kettering, who preferred to devote himself to research. In 1916 Delco, in exchange for \$9 million, became a branch of United Motors Corporation, an automotive parts and accessories (objects adding to the appearance or performance of something) company. In turn, General Motors (GM) acquired United Motors in 1918. Kettering was invited to organize and direct the new General Motors Research Corporation, based in Dayton at the inventor's request. By 1925 the research labs had been transferred to Detroit, Michigan; Kettering and his wife lived in a hotel in the city until Kettering's retirement.

As head of GM research for 27 years, Kettering helped bring about the improvement of many products, acquiring 140 patents in his name. His most notable achievements included the development of "Ethyl" leaded gasoline to correct engine

KETTERING



Charles F. Kettering.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

knock; the refrigerant (cooling agent) "Freon"; and faster-drying and longer-lasting finishes for automobiles. He also created the lightweight diesel engine, which helped improve the moving power of railroads.

Helped the public good

Kettering, in addition to his success as a scientist and engineer, was highly regarded as a public speaker and social philosopher (seeker of wisdom). "I am for the double-profit system," he said, "a reasonable profit for the manufacturer and a much greater

profit for the customer." "I object to people running down the future," he also remarked. "I am going to live all the rest of my life there, and I would like it to be a nice place, polished, bright, glistening, and glorious." Kettering always regarded himself as a professional amateur. "We are amateurs," he observed, "because we are doing things for the first time."

Kettering retired from GM in 1947 but continued to serve as a director and research adviser until his death in Dayton on November 25, 1958. He received more than three dozen honorary (achieved without meeting the usual requirements) doctor's degrees and dozens of awards, honors, and medals. His name lives on in the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, which he organized for medical research in 1927, and the Sloan-Kettering Institute for Cancer Research, founded by GM chairman Alfred P. Sloan Jr. in 1945.

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AYATOLLAH KHOMEINI

Born: September 24, 1902

Khomein, Persia

Died: June 3, 1989

Tehran, Iran

Iranian head of state and religious leader

Ayatollah Khomeini was the founder and supreme leader of the Islamic Republic of Iran. The only leader in the Muslim world who combined political and religious authority as a head of state, he took office in 1979.

Early life and education

Ayatollah Ruhollah Musavi Khomeini was born on September 24, 1902, according to most sources. The title Ayatollah (the Sign of God) reflected his scholarly religious standing in the Shia Islamic tradition. His first name, Ruhollah (the Spirit of God), is a common name in spite of its religious meaning, and his last name is taken from his birthplace, the town of Khomein, which is about 200 miles south of Tehran, Iran's capital city. His father, Mustapha Musavi, was the chief cleric (those with religious authority) of the town and was murdered only five months after the birth of Ruhollah. The child was raised by his mother (Hajar) and aunt (Sahebeh), both of whom died when Ruhollah was about fifteen years old.

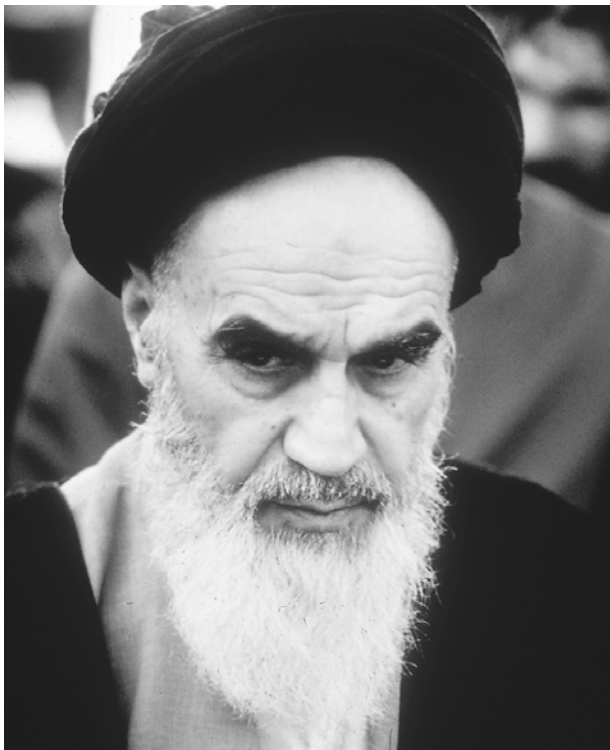
Ayatollah Khomeini's life after childhood went through three different phases. The first phase, from 1908 to 1962, was marked mainly by training, teaching, and writing in the field of Islamic studies. At the age of six

he began to study the Koran, Islam's holy book, and also elementary Persian, an ancient language of Iran. Later, he completed his studies in Islamic law, ethics, and spiritual philosophy under the supervision of Ayatollah Abdul Karim Haeri-ye Yazdi, in Qom, where he also got married and had two sons and three daughters. Although during this scholarly phase of his life Khomeini was not politically active, the nature of his studies, teachings, and writings revealed that he firmly believed in political activism by clerics (religious leaders).

Preparation for political leadership

The second phase of Khomeini's life, from 1962 to 1979, was marked by political activism which was greatly influenced by his strict, religious interpretation of Shia Islam. He practically launched his fight against the shah's regime (the king's rule) in 1962, which led to the eruption of a religious and political rebellion on June 5, 1963. This date (fifteenth of Khurdad in the Iranian solar calendar) is regarded by the revolutionists as the turning point in the history of the Islamic movement in Iran. The shah's bloody crushing of the uprising was followed by the exile (forced removal) of Khomeini in 1964, first to Iraq then to France.

Khomeini's religious and political ideas became more extreme and his entry into active political opposition reflected a combination of events in his life. First, the deaths of the two leading Iranian religious leaders left leadership open to Khomeini. Second, although ever since the rise of Reza Shah Pahlavi (1878–1944) to power in the 1920s, the clerical class had been on the defensive because of his movements away from certain



Ayatollah Khomeini.

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religious policies. And third, the shah's granting of diplomatic privileges to the American military personnel in 1964 was viewed as insulting to the Iranian sense of national independence.

Founding the Islamic Republic of Iran

The third phase of Khomeini's life began with his return to Iran from exile on February 1, 1979, after Muhammad Reza Shah had been forced to step down two weeks earlier. On February 11 revolutionary forces loyal to Khomeini seized power in Iran, and Khomeini emerged as the founder and the supreme leader of the Islamic Republic of Iran.

From the perspective of Khomeini and his followers, the Iranian Revolution went through several "revolutionary" phases. The first phase began with Khomeini's appointment of Mehdi Bazargan as the head of the "provisional government" on February 5, 1979, and ended with his fall on November 6, two days after the capture of the U.S. embassy (the U.S. headquarters in Iran).

The second revolution was marked by the elimination of mainly nationalist forces, or forces devoted to the interests of a culture. As early as August 20, 1979, twenty-two newspapers that clashed with Khomeini's views were ordered closed. In terms of foreign policy, the landmarks of the second revolution were the destruction of U.S.-Iran relations and the admission of the shah to the United States on October 22, 1979. Two weeks later, Khomeini instructed Iranian students to "expand with all their might their attacks against the United States" in order to force the extradition (legal surrender) of the shah. The seizure of the American embassy on November 4 led to 444 days of agonizing dispute between the United States and Iran until the release of the hostages on January 21, 1981.

The so-called third revolution began with Khomeini's dismissal of President Abul Hassan Bani-Sadr on June 22, 1981. Bani-Sadr's fate was a result of Khomeini's determination to eliminate from power any individual or group that could stand in the way of the ideal Islamic Republic of Iran. This government, however, had yet to be molded thoroughly according to his interpretation of Islam. In terms of foreign policy, the main characteristics of the third revolution were the continuation of the Iraq-Iran war, expanded efforts to export the "Islamic revo-

lution,” and increasing relations with the Soviet Union, a once-powerful nation that was made up of Russia and several other smaller nations.

The revolution began going through yet a fourth phase in late 1982. Domestically, the clerical class had combined its control, prevented land distribution, and promoted the role of the private citizens. Internationally, Iran sought a means of ending its status as an outcast and tried to distance itself from terrorist groups. It expanded commercial relations with Western Europe, China, Japan, and Turkey and reduced interaction with the Soviet Union. Iran also claimed that the door was open for re-establishing relations with the United States.

After the revolution

In November of 1986 President Ronald Reagan (1911–) admitted that the United States had secretly supplied some arms to Iran for their war against Iraq. This controversy led to a lengthy governmental investigation to see if federal laws had been violated in what would become known as the Iran-Contra affair.

In 1988 Khomeini and Iran accepted a cease-fire with Iraq after being pressured by the United Nations, a multi-national, peace-keeping organization. On February 14, 1989, Khomeini sentenced writer Salman Rushdie (1947–) to death, without a trial, in a legal ruling called a fatwa. Khomeini deemed Rushdie’s novel “The Satanic Verses” to be blasphemous, or insulting to God, because of its unflattering portrait of Islam.

Before his death from cancer in Iran on June 3, 1989, Khomeini designated President

Ali Khamenei to succeed him. Khomeini is still a popular figure to Iranians. Each year on the anniversary of his death, hundreds of thousands of people attend a ceremony at his shrine at the Behesht-e-Zahra cemetery.

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NIKITA KHRUSHCHEV

Born: April 17, 1894

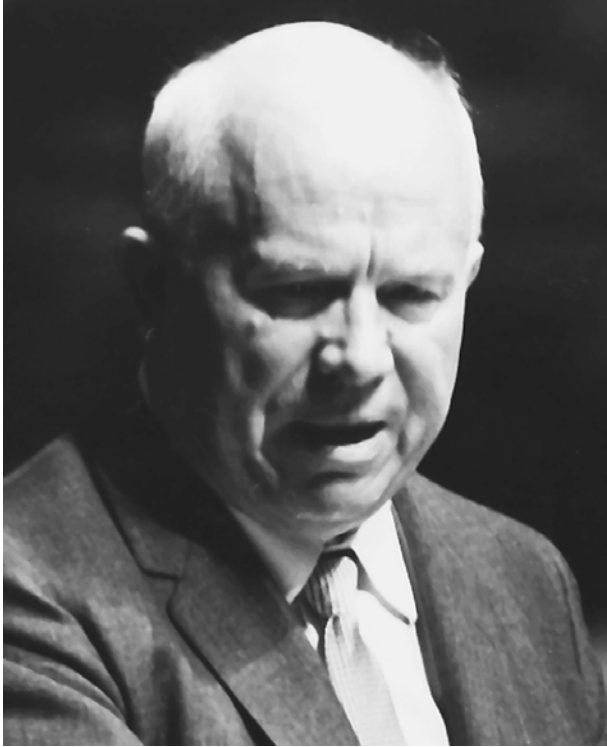
Kalinovka, Russia

Died: September 11, 1971

Moscow, Russia

Russian Communist leader and Soviet premier

The Soviet political leader Nikita Khrushchev was a major force in world politics in the second half of the twentieth century. His leadership played a key role in the 1960s during the height of the Cold War, a four-decade standoff between the United States and the Soviet Union.



Nikita Khrushchev.

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Childhood and revolution

Nikita Sergeyevich Khrushchev was born in Kalinovka in southern Russia on April 17, 1894. As a child, Khrushchev attended a religious school where he learned to read and write. He also took a job taking care of cattle and continued until he was in his early teens. At the age of fifteen he became an apprentice (a student learning the trade) mechanic in Yuzovka, a growing town in the Ukraine, where his father was working as a miner. When his apprenticeship ended, he was employed as a machine repairman in coal mines of the region, where he worked for nearly a decade.

In 1918, at the age of twenty-four, Khrushchev joined the Communist Party, a political party that believes goods and services should be owned and distributed by the government. As a Communist, he enrolled in the Red Army to fight in the civil war then in progress. At the time, the Russian Revolution was storming the country. The Bolsheviks, led by Vladimir Lenin (1870–1924), were Communists that overthrew the czarist rule (rule by a czar, or king) of Russia. Communism took control of Russia in 1917. But not all of Russia agreed with the new government and soon civil war broke out between the Red Guards, who supported the Bolsheviks and the Whites, who opposed the new rule.

After nearly three years of service in the civil war, Khrushchev returned to Yuzovka and was appointed assistant manager of a mine. Soon thereafter, he entered the Donets Industrial Institute, a worker's school run by the Soviets, the new Communist ruling party. There he received additional instruction in the Communist Party. He became a political leader at school and was named the secretary of the school's Communist Party Committee. He graduated in 1925 and soon became a full-time party official as secretary of the Petrovsko-Mariinsk district of Yuzovka. There, he came to know Lazar M. Kaganovich, the secretary general of the Ukrainian Party's Central Committee and a close associate of future Soviet leader Joseph Stalin (1879–1953).

Khrushchev married in 1915, but his wife died during the famine (a severe shortage of food) which resulted from the civil war. In 1924 he remarried, this time to Nina Petrovna, a schoolteacher. The couple eventually had two children.

Entering politics

In 1929 Khrushchev attended the Industrial Academy in Moscow for training in industrial administration, leaving in 1931 to become secretary of a district party committee in Moscow. Within four years he became head of the party organization of Moscow, thus joining the highest ranks of party officials. There he used his industrial training as he helped to supervise the construction of the city's subway system.

When Stalin began eliminating those he mistrusted from the Communist Party's leadership, Khrushchev was fortunate to be one of the trusted. In 1938, when most of the chief party leaders in the Ukraine were gone, he was made first secretary of the Ukrainian Communist Party and at the same time was named to the Politburo, the ruling body of the Soviet Communist Party. As first secretary, he was in fact, though not in name, the chief executive of the Ukraine. Except for a short interval in 1947, he held on to his authority in that area until 1949.

During World War II (1939–45), where the Allies of Russia, America, and Great Britain fought the Axis of Germany, Japan, and Italy, Khrushchev served in the Red Army both in the Ukraine and in other southern parts of the former Soviet Union, and advanced to the rank of lieutenant general. He achieved all of this while still first secretary of the Ukrainian Communist Party.

In 1949 Khrushchev was summoned to Moscow to serve in the party's Secretariat, directed by Stalin. Then, after Stalin's death in 1953, Khrushchev was among the eight men in whose hands power became concentrated. In the distribution of the various spheres of power, the party was recognized as his sphere.

Within a few months he became first secretary of the Central Committee of the Soviet Communist Party—that is, its chief official.

Gaining power

By installing his supporters in important party positions and making some critical political alliances, Khrushchev gained power over the seven who shared power with him and by 1955 he was clearly the foremost political figure in the Soviet Union. Even that important status was enhanced three years later, when he became chairman of the Council of Ministers, succeeding Nikolai Bulganin (1895–1975). With that, he became the most powerful man in the country—as chairman of the Council of Ministers, he was head of the government and, as first secretary of the Soviet Communist Party's Central Committee, he was head of the party.

Instead of looking to equal Stalin by becoming a dictator, or someone who possesses supreme power, Khrushchev encouraged the policy of de-Stalinization, which the government had been following since 1953, for the purpose of ending the worst practices of the Stalin dictatorship. Although the Soviet Union under Khrushchev continued to be a one-party totalitarian state, where one party had complete political power, its citizens enjoyed conditions more favorable than had been possible under Stalin. The standard of living rose, intellectual and artistic life became somewhat more free, and the authority of the political police was reduced. In addition, relations with the outside world were generally improved, and the Soviet reputation began to gain favor.

Meanwhile, the onset of the Cold War (1945–91) began to escalate in 1960, when Khrushchev broke off talks with President

Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969) after announcing an American spy plane had been shot down in the Soviet Union. Two years later, the United States and Soviet Union stood at the doorstep of nuclear war during the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962, when America waited for Khrushchev to withdraw Soviet-owned nuclear arms from Cuba, the Soviet's Communist ally.

However, Khrushchev's fortunes in the Soviet Union eventually began to take a downward turn. Some of his ambitious economic projects failed and his handling of foreign affairs resulted in a number of setbacks. The de-Stalinization produced unrest in the Communist ranks of other countries. These developments caused concern among party leaders in the Soviet Union, many of them already fearful that Khrushchev might be planning to extend his power. In October 1964, Khrushchev was forced into retirement by other party leaders.

As a citizen, he lived a quiet life until his death on September 11, 1971, in Moscow. Although Khrushchev's legacy is still very much open to debate, no one can deny his attempts to de-Stalinize his nation that led to the improvement of everyday life in the Soviet Union.

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B. B. KING

Born: September 16, 1925

Itta Bena, Mississippi

African American singer, musician, and songwriter

B. B. King is one of the most successful artists in the history of blues music. Today his ability as a blues guitarist remains unmatched.

Early years

Riley B. King was born on September 16, 1925, between Itta Bena and Indianola, Mississippi. His parents split up when he was a small child, and he lived for a few years with his mother in the Mississippi hills. She died when he was nine, and he was alone until his father, Albert King, found him a few years later. Working on a cotton plantation in Indianola, he earned \$22.50 a week. "I guess the earliest sound of blues that I can remember was in the fields while people would be pickin' cotton or choppin' or somethin'." King noted in a 1988 *Living Blues* interview cited in *Contemporary Musicians*. "When I sing and play now I can hear those same sounds that I used to hear then as a kid."

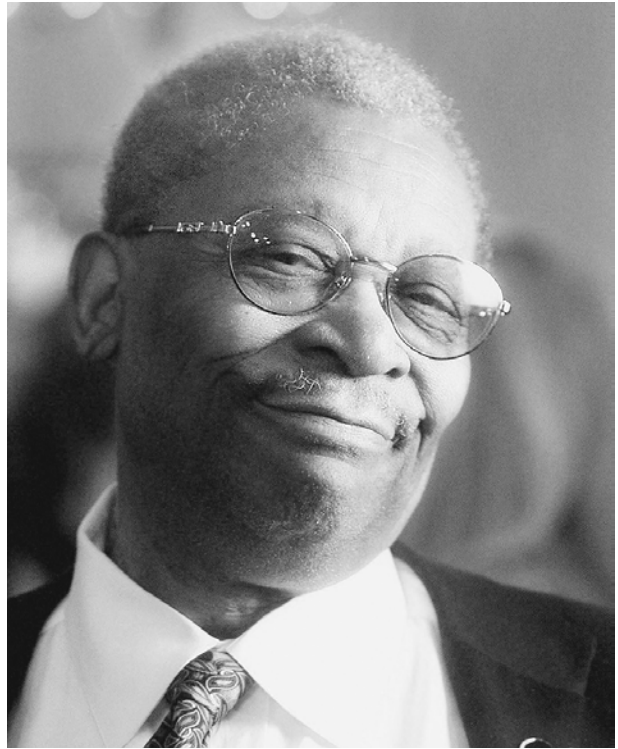
King sang gospel music in church and even performed professionally with the

Famous St. John Gospel Singers, but he was not allowed to sing the blues, which was considered “the devil’s music.” Still, he listened to recordings by early blues masters, especially Sonny Boy Williamson, on his aunt’s record player. King’s farm boss loaned him money to buy a guitar and sign up for music lessons, and King quickly developed as a blues player. Soon he was earning more singing and playing guitar on street corners on Saturday than he made all week on the plantation. King left Mississippi for Memphis, Tennessee, which promised the excitement and musical atmosphere he dreamed of. He settled there for good in 1948.

“Beale Street Blues Boy”

After serving briefly in the army, King moved in with his cousin Booker (Bukka) White, also a blues guitarist. King’s attempts to copy Bukka’s playing helped him develop his own style. He sought out Sonny Boy Williamson, who had a radio show on WDIA in West Memphis, and asked to play a song for him. Williamson was so impressed with King that he offered King his own radio show and a chance to play regularly at Miss Annie’s 16th Street Grill. King was able to advertise his upcoming concerts on the radio, and soon he and his trio had become popular. Known on the radio as the “Beale Street Blues Boy,” which was shortened to “Bee-Bee,” and then to his famous initials, King decided he wanted to make records.

King was signed to Bullet Records and in 1949 recorded four songs at the radio station, including “Miss Martha King” and “I’ve Got the Blues.” He also continued to perform in the area. Musician and talent scout Ike Turner (1931–) connected King with the Kent/Mod-



B. B. King.

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ern/RPM record label, and King’s King’s 1951 single for his new label, “Three O’Clock Blues,” became a hit. He scored several other hits during these years, and by the mid-1950s he was playing about three hundred shows a year. He would maintain this schedule for over twenty years.

Once when King was playing at a dance in Twist, Arkansas, two men got into a fight and knocked over a heater, starting a fire that spread through the dancehall. King escaped the burning building, then remembered his sixty-dollar guitar and ran back in, nearly dying in an attempt to rescue it. When he discovered that the men who had started the blaze

were fighting over a woman named Lucille, he gave the name to his guitar—"to remind myself never to do anything that foolish."

Appreciated by rock audiences

Although King distanced himself from rock and roll when the new style emerged in the 1950s, he soon began to add some of the traits of early rockers like Little Richard (1932–) and Fats Domino (1928–) to his act. In 1962 he moved to the ABC label, and in 1965 he put out his first album, *Live at the Regal*. In 1968, after the assassination of civil rights leader Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968), King played an all-night blues benefit with fellow guitarists Jimi Hendrix (1942–1970) and Buddy Guy (1936–) to raise money for King's Southern Christian Leadership Conference.

During the late 1960s, praise for King from English rock musicians such as Eric Clapton (1945–) and Jimmy Page (1944–) led to renewed interest in the blues among U.S. audiences. King found himself playing concerts with bands such as Led Zeppelin, Black Sabbath, and Santana. As African American audiences moved away from the blues, King began to attract young white listeners. In 1969 "The Thrill Is Gone" was released; the song won a Grammy in 1971 and became King's biggest hit. In 1971, with attorney F. Lee Bailey (1933–), King founded FAIRR (the Foundation for the Advancement of Inmate Rehabilitation and Recreation), an organization dedicated to the improvement of prison conditions. King often gave concerts in prisons, one of which was recorded and released as *Live at San Quentin*.

A blues legend

By the 1980s King was recognized as a blues legend. He won a 1984 Grammy for best traditional blues recording for *Blues n' Jazz*; he appeared on the album *Rattle and Hum* with the Irish rock band U2; and he received a Lifetime Achievement Award at the 1988 Grammy awards ceremony. In the early 1990s King was inducted into the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame, received a Presidential Medal of Freedom from George Bush (1924–), and even earned a star on Hollywood's Walk of Fame. *Live at San Quentin*, released in 1990, earned him another Grammy. He was also the owner of B. B. King's Blues Club and Restaurant on Beale Street in Memphis.

King has been married and divorced twice. He has fifteen children and has often expressed regret that his heavy touring schedule prevented him from being around to see them grow up. He was faced with a heartbreaking situation in 1992 when he played at a jail in Gainesville, Florida; among the inmates there was his daughter Patty, who was serving time on drug charges. By the time he reached his late sixties, King had slowed down his performance schedule somewhat, though he still toured regularly. In 1994 he played a concert at the Hard Rock Café in Beijing, China. He was by now playing Lucille the Fifteenth. "We've spent 40 years together," he said to *Ebony*. "She likes younger men but puts up with me."

In December 1995 King received the 18th annual Kennedy Center Honors presented by President Bill Clinton (1946–). King said of the event, "Anytime the most powerful man in the world takes 10 to 15 minutes to sit and talk with me, an old guy from Indianola, Mis-

issippi, that's a memory imprinted in my head which forever will be there." In 2000 King was elected to the Mississippi Musicians Hall of Fame. The same year he received a Heroes Award from the National Academy of Recording Arts & Sciences. In February 2001 he won another Grammy in the traditional blues album category for *Riding with the King*, which he recorded with Eric Clapton.

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BILLIE JEAN KING

Born: November 22, 1943

Long Beach, California

American tennis player

International tennis star Billie Jean King won a record twenty Wimbledon championships and helped win equal treatment for women in sports.

Encouraged by her parents

Billie Jean (Moffitt) King was born on November 22, 1943, in the southern Califor-

nia city of Long Beach. She was the first of Willard and Betty Moffitt's two children. Her father was an engineer for the fire department, and her mother was a receptionist at a medical center. Both she and her brother, Randy, who would become a professional baseball player, excelled in athletics as children and were encouraged by their parents. At fire department picnics, her father's coworkers always wanted Billie Jean to play on their softball team.

Billie Jean developed an interest in tennis at age eleven and saved money to buy her first racket. When she was fourteen years old she won her first championship in a southern California tournament. She began receiving coaching at age fifteen from Alice Marble, a famous player from the 1930s. The product of a working-class family, Billie Jean soon found herself caught up in a country club sport. Despite her success on the court, the fact that tennis was mainly geared toward men would prove a personal challenge to her in later years.

Tournament successes

In 1961 Billie Jean competed in her first Wimbledon tournament in England. Although she was defeated in the women's singles, she teamed with Karen Hautze to win the doubles (two-person team) title. She married attorney Larry King in 1965. In 1966 she won her first Wimbledon singles championship and repeated in 1967. That same year she also won the U.S. Open singles title at Forest Hills, New York.

In 1968 King won both the women's singles and doubles titles at Wimbledon. In 1971 she became the first woman athlete to win more than one hundred thousand dollars

KING, BILLIE JEAN



Billie Jean King.

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in a single year. It was 1972, however, that would be King's banner year. She won the women's singles title at Wimbledon, the U.S. Open, and the French Open. (These three tournaments plus the Australian Open now make up the "Grand Slam" of tennis.) For this feat, *Sports Illustrated* magazine named her "Sportswoman of the Year," and *Sports* magazine deemed her "Tennis Player of the Year."

In 1973 King again won Wimbledon's singles and doubles championships. It was then that she began to openly criticize the low prize money offered to women competitors. She noted that women were receiving far less than men for what she considered

equal ability and effort. Her statements on this issue led to the offer from a major U.S. drug manufacturer of a large sum of money to make the prize money at the U.S. Open equal for both men and women.

A victory for women's liberation

King's career coincided with the women's liberation (feminist) movement of the 1970s. Her working-class upbringing in southern California and the second-class treatment she received as a professional athlete made her a natural spokesperson for the movement. Her role as a leader in the feminist cause reached its peak in September 1973, when she faced the 1939 men's tennis champion Bobby Riggs (1918–1995) in a nationally televised match at the Astrodome in Houston, Texas. King easily beat the aging Riggs and emerged as the winner of what had been billed as the "Battle of the Sexes."

In 1975 King won her sixth Wimbledon singles championship, but she announced that she would no longer compete in major events because of injuries to her knees. In all she won a record twenty Wimbledon championships (including singles, doubles, and mixed doubles). Today, women competing in professional athletic contests owe much to Billie Jean King. With her outstanding play and forceful attitude, she earned them the right to compete for the same money as men.

Later years

King helped to found the Women's Tennis Association and served as its president from 1973 to 1975 and again from 1980 to 1981. After retiring from professional tennis in 1984, King and her husband have promoted coed (open to both men and women)

team tennis. King has also been active in charitable events. In 1995 she joined the Virginia Slims legends tour along with Chris Evert (1954–) and Martina Navratilova (1956–) to raise money for the fight against acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease that destroys the body's ability to fight off infection). King is also an investor in Discovery Zone, a chain of children's "play lands" that promotes the equal athletic abilities of boys and girls.

King continues to be associated with the sport as a broadcaster, teacher, and coach. In 1999 and 2000 she coached the U.S. women's team, whose members included Venus Williams, Serena Williams, Lindsay Davenport, and Jennifer Capriati, to victories in the international Federation Cup tournament.

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CORETTA SCOTT KING

Born: April 27, 1927

Perry County, Alabama

African American civil rights advocate

Coretta Scott King was the wife of civil rights leader Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968). She has gained an international reputation as an advocate (someone that supports a cause) for civil rights, nonviolence, international peace, and equal rights for women.

Early life and school

Coretta Scott was born on April 27, 1927, in Perry County, Alabama. Her parents, Obadiah and Bernice Scott, were farmers. The Scott family had owned land in the area since the American Civil War (1861–65). Even though the Scotts were more successful than most African Americans in the area, life for them and their three children was difficult. Coretta, along with her mother and sister, tended the family garden and crops, fed the chickens and hogs, and milked the cows.

Scott's early schooling was affected by the system of segregation, which kept people of different races apart. She walked six miles a day to and from school while white students traveled by bus to schools with better facilities and teachers. After completing six grades at the elementary school that "did not do much to prepare" her, Scott enrolled in Lincoln High School in Marion, Alabama. Lincoln "was as good as any school, white or black, in the area," said Scott. She developed an interest in music at Lincoln and, with encouragement from her teachers, decided to pursue a career in it.

Obstacles to overcome

In 1945 Scott graduated as valedictorian (the student having the highest grades) of her

KING, CORETTA SCOTT



Coretta Scott King.

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high school class and won a scholarship to Antioch College in Yellow Springs, Ohio. Eager to leave the South, Scott enrolled at Antioch only to discover that racism (a dislike or disrespect of someone solely based on his or her race) was very much alive there also. Being the first African American to major in elementary education at Antioch created problems for her. Such a major required a two-year internship, or training period—one year teaching in the Antioch private elementary school and the other in the Ohio public schools. The year at the Antioch school, where Scott taught music, went well. The Yellow Springs school board, how-

ever, refused to allow Scott to teach in its school system because of her race. The student body was integrated, meaning that it contained both black and white students, but the faculty (teachers and members of the administrative staff) was all white. Scott was given the option of going to Xenia, Ohio, and teaching in an all-black school or remaining at the Antioch private school for a second year. She chose to stay at the Antioch school.

Discrimination (unequal treatment based on race) made Scott more determined than ever. She joined the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) as well as a race-relations committee and a civil liberties committee. She later said, “I was active on all of them. From the first, I had been determined to get ahead, not just for myself, but to do something for my people and for all people. I took to my heart the words of Horace Mann [1796–1859], ‘Be ashamed to die until you have won some victory for humanity.’”

Scott’s years at Antioch were rewarding despite her unfortunate teaching experience. Her time there renewed and strengthened the values of giving and sharing that she had learned at home and at Lincoln High School. She learned to work toward excellence, crediting the school with helping lead her to believe “that individuals as well as society could move toward the democratic ideal of brotherhood.” At Antioch, Scott developed confidence that she could compete with “all people of all racial, ethnic and cultural backgrounds” on their terms or on her own. She claimed that “the total experience of Antioch” was an important element in preparing her for the role as wife of Martin Luther King Jr. and for her part in the civil rights move-

ment (the organized effort to gain full equality for African Americans in the United States) he led.

Marriage to Martin Luther King Jr.

While Coretta Scott was at Antioch she realized that she wanted to continue in music and to develop her voice to its fullest potential. She enrolled in the New England Conservatory in Boston, Massachusetts, graduating in 1954 with a bachelor's degree in music. It was in Boston that she met Martin Luther King Jr. They were married on June 18, 1953. Her decision to marry the young minister meant giving up her career as a performing concert musician.

In 1954 the Kings moved to Montgomery, Alabama, where they led the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church. It was in Montgomery that they were pushed into the leadership of the civil rights movement. Martin Luther King Jr. was recognized as the movement's leader, but Coretta Scott King was very much a part of it as well. She was actively involved in organizing and participating in the marches and boycotts (a form of protest in which organizers refuse to have dealings with a person, a store, or an organization until policies or positions are changed). She also gave "freedom concerts," in which she sang, read poetry, and gave lectures on the history of civil rights, to raise funds for the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC; an organization that was founded by Martin Luther King Jr. in 1957 to help local groups in their efforts to gain equality for African Americans) and for the civil rights movement. She also gave speeches all over the country, often standing in for her husband.

A worthy successor

After the assassination of Martin Luther King Jr. in Memphis, Tennessee, on April 4, 1968, Coretta Scott King continued to work for the civil rights movement. Four days after the violent murder of her husband, the grieving widow and three of her four children returned to Memphis to lead the march Martin had organized. In June 1968 she spoke at the Poor People's Campaign in Washington, D.C., a rally her husband had been planning before his death. Then, in May 1969 she led a demonstration of striking hospital workers in Charleston, South Carolina.

In addition to her role in the civil rights movement, King was active in the peace movement. She called the Vietnam War (1955–75; a civil war in which U.S.-backed forces in South Vietnam fought against a takeover by forces from North Vietnam), "the most cruel and evil war in the history of mankind." In 1961 as a representative for the Women's Strike for Peace, she attended a seventeen-nation arms-reduction conference in Geneva, Switzerland. Later, King was concerned with full employment (or providing access to jobs for all people who are able to work). She testified in Washington in favor of the Humphrey-Hawkins Full Employment and Balanced Growth Act of 1978, which was aimed at reducing both unemployment and rates of price increases. She also supported equal rights and justice for women.

King also led and worked on several national committees and continued to serve on the board of directors of the SCLC. She was president of the Martin Luther King Jr. Center for Social Change, located in Atlanta, Georgia. The Kings' youngest son, Dexter Scott King (1961–), took over as leader of the King Center in 1995.

Coretta Scott King continues to work in support of world peace, full employment, and social justice. Furthermore, her commitment to nonviolence is as strong as ever.

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MARTIN LUTHER KING JR.

Born: January 15, 1929

Atlanta, Georgia

Died: April 4, 1968

Memphis, Tennessee

African American civil rights activist and minister

The minister and Nobel Peace Prize winner Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968) originated the use of nonviolent methods within the civil rights movement. He was one of the most important African American leaders of his time.

Early life

Martin Luther King Jr. was born on January 15, 1929, in Atlanta, Georgia. He attended Atlanta public schools and then went on to Morehouse College. After graduation from Morehouse in 1948, King entered Crozer Theological Seminary and graduated in 1951. He then received his doctorate (an advanced degree) in theology (the study of religion) from Boston University in 1955.

In Boston King met Coretta Scott, whom he married on June 18, 1953. Four children were born to the couple. In 1954, King became minister of Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama. In Montgomery, he became active with the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the Alabama Council on Human Relations.

Nonviolence: the bus boycott

In December 1955, Rosa Parks (1913–), a black woman, was arrested for violating a segregated seating ordinance (a law enforcing separation between African American and white people) on a public bus in Montgomery. Black citizens were outraged. At the time, many public places, including buses, were segregated. King, along with fellow activists, urged African Americans to boycott the segregated city buses. (In a boycott people refuse to use products and services provided by people, businesses, or organizations until policies and procedures are changed.) From this boycott, the Montgomery Improvement Association (MIA) was formed. The bus boycott lasted more than a year. Finally, the bus company agreed to the protesters demands and ended segregated seating. The U.S. Supreme Court later stated that

the bus segregation laws of Montgomery were unconstitutional, or went against the laws of the Constitution.

Overnight, Martin Luther King had become a national hero as a leader in the civil rights struggle. The victory had not been easy. As an elected president of the MIA, King's life was in constant danger. His home was bombed, and he and other MIA leaders were constantly threatened, arrested, and jailed.

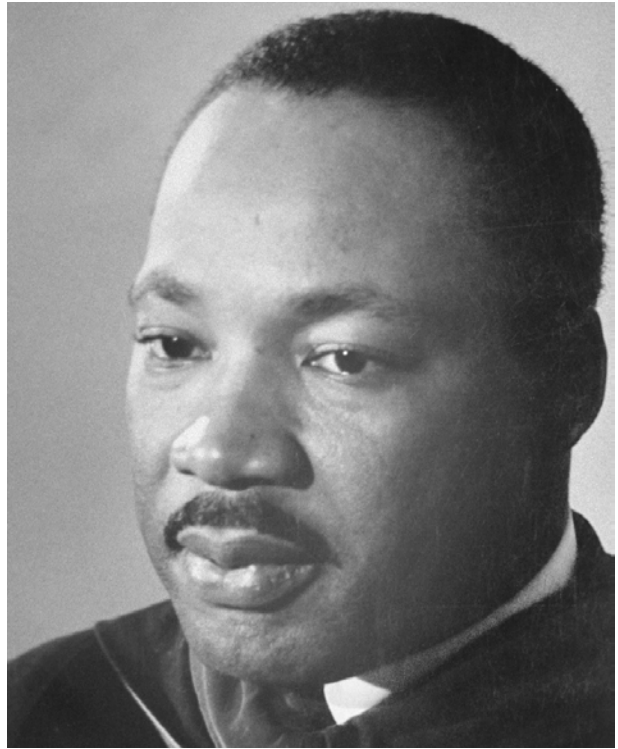
Southern Christian Leadership Conference

In January 1957 approximately sixty black ministers assembled in Atlanta to form the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) to continue the civil rights fight. King was elected president. In February 1958 the SCLC sponsored twenty-one mass meetings in southern cities as part of a "Crusade for Citizenship." The goal was to double the number of black voters in the South. King was now traveling constantly, speaking for "justice" throughout the country.

A year later the Kings visited India at the invitation of Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru (1889–1964). King had long been interested in nonviolence as practiced by Mahatma Gandhi (1869–1948). Yet, when they returned to the United States, the civil rights struggle had become much more intense. Violent resistance by whites to the nonviolent efforts of black demonstrators filled the newspapers with stories of bloody fights.

"Sit-in" movement

In February 1960 the "sit-in" movement started in Greensboro, North Carolina. African American students began this nonviolent form of protest by sitting at "white only"



*Martin Luther King Jr.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

lunch counters in city stores. The movement quickly spread throughout much of the South. On April 15, 1960, the SCLC called a meeting of sit-in leaders to organize the movement. King urged the young people to continue using nonviolent means. Out of this meeting the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) emerged.

By August 1960 the sit-ins had succeeded in ending segregation at lunch counters in twenty-seven southern cities. In October 1960 the SCLC decided to increase their efforts to get African Americans registered to vote, use boycotts to gain fair employment, and work to end segregation in public places.

KING, MARTIN LUTHER, JR.

A popular department store in Atlanta, widely known for its policy of segregation, was the first goal in this renewed effort. When King and seventy-five students entered the store and requested lunch-counter service, he and thirty-six others were arrested. However, Atlanta's mayor worked out a truce and charges were dropped. But King was imprisoned for breaking the terms of his court supervision that resulted from a traffic offense conviction. John F. Kennedy (1917–1963), who at the time was campaigning for the presidency, made a telephone call to Mrs. King, and then worked to get King released.

Freedom riders

Soon the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), SCLC, and SNCC joined together to form the Freedom Ride Coordinating Committee with King as chairman. The idea was to “put the sit-ins on the road” by having pairs of black and white volunteers board interstate buses traveling through the South. This would test a new federal law forbidding segregated bus stations. A great deal of violence resulted as resisting whites overturned and burned buses, assaulted the Freedom Riders, and attacked newsmen. Many of the arrested riders chose prison rather than pay fines. However, the protest worked, forcing the Interstate Commerce Commission to enforce laws against segregation.

The movement heats up

On May 2, 1963, some six thousand school children marched to demonstrate against school segregation. The next day, as volunteers gathered in a church, police blocked the exits, and turned fire hoses and police dogs on the teenage demonstrators.

Finally, there was a truce between the civil rights groups and the police. Then, the Ku Klux Klan (KKK; a group that believes the white race is better than all other races) bombed the home of King's brother and the motel where SCLC members were headquartered. Enraged black citizens rioted and Alabama state troopers moved in and set up undeclared martial law, or temporary rule by the military. King and SCLC personnel continued to urge nonviolence but more violence erupted when white racists refused to obey federal school integration laws. The worst came when a bomb thrown into an African American church killed four little girls.

“Let Freedom Ring”

The year 1963 continued to be eventful in the struggle for civil rights. In June King led 125,000 people on a “Freedom Walk” in Detroit, Michigan. On August 27, more than 250,000 black and white citizens gathered in Washington, D.C. for a mass civil rights rally. There, King delivered his famous “Let Freedom Ring” address. That same year he was featured as *Time* magazine's “Man of the Year.”

In 1964 King and his followers moved on to St. Augustine, Florida, one of America's most segregated cities. After weeks of nonviolent demonstrations and violent counterattacks by whites, a committee was set up to move St. Augustine toward desegregation. A few weeks later, the 1964 Civil Rights Bill, which made discrimination (unequal treatment) based on race illegal, was signed into law by President Lyndon Johnson (1908–1973). In December 1964, King received the Nobel Peace Prize.

Target: Alabama

In 1965 the SCLC concentrated its efforts in Alabama. The first target was Selma, where

only a handful of black citizens had been allowed to vote. King urged President Johnson to rush the Voting Rights Act and announced a march from Selma to Montgomery to demonstrate the black people's determination to vote. (The Voting Rights Act, which was passed on August 10, 1965, made it illegal for Southern states to prevent African Americans from voting and registering to vote.) Alabama Governor George Wallace (1919–1998) refused to permit the march, and the five hundred people who gathered to march were beaten by state troopers.

Nonetheless, the march continued, and Selma's black citizens were joined by hundreds of black and white protesters from other states. On March 21, 1965, more than ten thousand people followed King from Selma toward Montgomery. Only three hundred were allowed to make the full four-day march, but they were joined by another twenty-five thousand in Montgomery for the final leg to the Capitol to present a petition (a written demand) to Governor Wallace.

New issues: Vietnam War

In 1965 King made a "people-to-people" tour of northern cities. A growing number of black people were becoming aggressive in the struggle for their rights. Their position caused King to take another look at the non-violent civil rights movement that he had fathered. Although committed to nonviolence and civil rights, he was also troubled about the American involvement in the Vietnam War (1965–73; a war in Vietnam in which American forces supported South Vietnam in their fight against Communist North Vietnam). He soon found himself pushed toward leadership in antiwar groups.

In 1967 King began speaking directly against U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War, although many civil rights advocates criticized this position. Around this time, while serving a four-day sentence in Birmingham, which was a result of the 1963 demonstrations, that King and other activists began planning a "Poor People's March." The march was to be held in Washington, D.C. on April 22, 1968, to bring together the interests of the poor of all races.

Death to a dream

In February 1968 King led an antiwar rally in Washington, D.C. In March, King went to Memphis, Tennessee, to lead demonstrations against a wide range of complaints, including police brutality and poor school conditions. The march ended in a riot when some frustrated young African Americans began breaking windows, looting, and burning stores. The police reacted quickly and violently.

In Memphis on April 3, 1968, King addressed a rally. Speaking of threats on his life, he urged followers to continue the non-violent struggle no matter what happened to him. The next evening, as King stood on an outside balcony at the Lorraine Motel, he was struck by a rifle bullet. He died a few hours later.

A monument to King

In December 1999, a four-acre site near the Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D.C., was approved as the location for a monument to King. The site is near the place where King delivered his "I have a dream" speech in 1963. In September 2000, a design was selected. The monument will be the first to honor an individual African American in the National Mall area.

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STEPHEN KING

Born: September 21, 1947

Portland, Maine

American author

Stephen King is a very popular author of horror fiction. In his works he blends elements of the traditional gothic (bleak and threatening) tale with those of the modern psychological (how the mind works) thriller, detective, and science fiction stories.

His early years

Stephen Edwin King was born on September 21, 1947, in Portland, Maine. When

he was two years old, his father left the family, leaving his mother to care for Stephen and his older brother, David. She took a series of low-paying jobs to support her children, and as a result the boys saw little of their mother.

As a boy King found a box of fantasy-horror fiction books and stories that had belonged to his father, and he read them all. By the time King was seven he had begun writing his own stories. He enjoyed watching science fiction and monster movies.

"Writing has always been it for me," King indicated in a panel discussion at the 1984 World Fantasy Convention in Ottawa, Canada. Science fiction and adventure stories comprised his first literary efforts. King began submitting short fiction to magazines when he was twelve. He had no success at that time selling his stories, but he did win first prize in an essay competition sponsored by a scholastic magazine. In high school King authored a small, satiric (poking fun at human weakness) newspaper entitled *The Village Vomit*. He published his first story at eighteen in a magazine called *Comics Review*.

King graduated from high school in 1966. He received a Bachelor of Arts degree in English from the University of Maine in 1970. He married Tabitha Spruce, also a writer, the following year. They have three children.

After college

After graduating from college, King taught English at a high school in Maine and added to his income by holding a number of part-time jobs and by writing short stories for several popular magazines. He did not receive much money from the sale of his stories. Sometimes he was not paid at all but was

given extra copies of the magazine to show or sell to other people.

King's first novel was *Carrie*, published in 1974. It was a huge success, which allowed King to quit his other jobs and write full-time. With this book, King became one of the top writers of horror stories.

Popularity

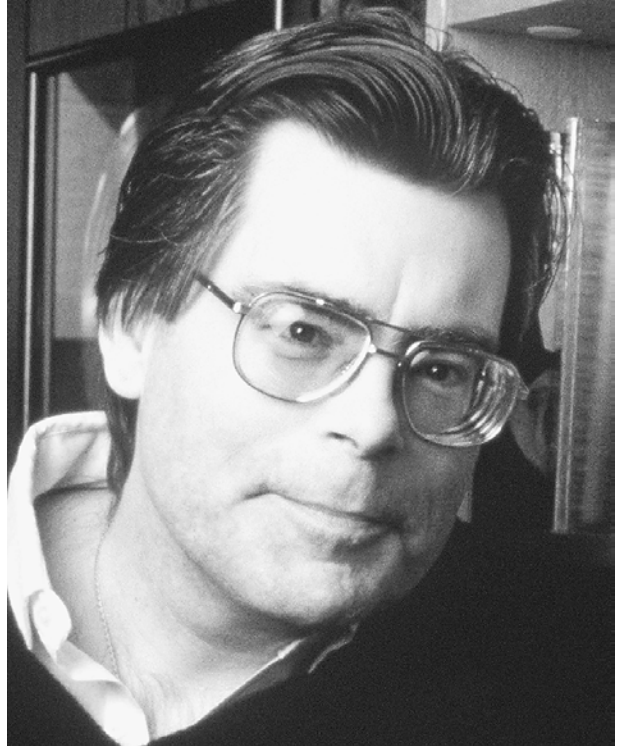
King's fiction features everyday language, attention to the details of the story's surroundings, the emotional feelings of his characters, realistic settings, and an emphasis on modern problems. King's popularity comes from his ability to create stories in which evil occurs in ordinary situations.

Many of King's stories are semiautobiographical, meaning that they are taken in part from some of his own experiences. Many of the locations he writes about are based on the places he grew up in when he lived in Maine and other locations. Many of his stories deal with ordinary people who are faced with frightening events they have to try to understand and overcome.

A publishing marvel, King has nearly one hundred million copies of his works in print worldwide. He is the first writer to have had three, four, and finally five titles appear simultaneously (at the same time) on the *New York Times* bestseller list.

How King approaches writing

Some of King's works are variations (different ways of telling) on classic stories of fantasy and horror. *Salem's Lot*, for example, is a contemporary (modern) version of Bram Stoker's (1847–1912) novel *Dracula*, set in an isolated New England town. King's epic (long



Stephen King.

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and large in scope) *The Stand* is close in structure to J. R. R. Tolkien's (1892–1973) *Lord of The Rings*. It tells of a battle between the forces of good and evil.

King used to write every day except for Christmas day, the Fourth of July, and his own birthday. Very often he would work on two or three stories at a time, switching from one to another as ideas came to him.

King has also admitted that during the period between 1977 and 1984 he wrote five novels under the pseudonym (a false name used to hide the identity of the writer) Richard Bachman. He did this to disguise the

true extent of his prolific (abundant, in great quantity) work. Also, his publisher believed that he had already saturated (filled to capacity) the market.

Scary

In his stories King also likes to write about how people relate to one another in scary situations. His characters are taken from both young and older people who come from many different backgrounds. King has said that he just wants to scare people. He likes to frighten his readers after he has made them love his characters. While stressing the importance of characterization (describing the qualities of characters), he regards the story itself as the most essential part of crafting fiction.

Even though he is very successful, King is modest. In an interview with *Yankee* magazine he said, "I'm leery [cautious] of thinking I'm somebody. Because nobody really is. Everybody is able to do something well, but in this country there's a premium [special value] put on stardom." He also said there is an "occupational hazard" (a danger based on a job) in being a successful writer, because of all the attention a writer can receive.

The accident

King had his own personal experience with horror on the afternoon of June 19, 1999. As he was walking near his summer home in Bangor, Maine, he was struck by a van. King had many operations to repair a collapsed lung and multiple fractures (small breaks) to his leg and hip. He then spent many months recovering in the hospital. King did get well but did not regain the same state of health he had before the accident.

The driver who hit King claimed the dog in his van distracted him. It was found he had several driving violations (acts of breaking the law). He was fined, but he did not go to jail, nor was his driver's license taken away.

Movies, television, and the World

Wide Web

Many of Stephen King's books and stories have been made into movies for both Hollywood and for television. These include *Carrie*, *Salem's Lot*, *The Shining*, *Christine*, *The Shawshank Redemption*, and *The Green Mile*.

In 2000 King's publisher, Simon & Schuster, published his novella (short novel) *Riding the Bullet* in electronic form. After that King became the first well-known author to self-publish on the Internet when he published several segments of a new book, *The Plant*, on the Web. In 2000 he also wrote *On Writing: A Memoir of the Craft*. In this book he tried to give advice to people who want to become writers based on his own experiences.

In early 2002 King announced his retirement from writing, saying that he has said everything that he set out to say.

Stephen King is regarded as a master of the horror story, developing this type of tale to a new level. The ideal format for horror tales used to be the short story, but King is one of the first to challenge that idea. He has written not just successful horror novels, but successful, long horror novels. His fans may take comfort in the fact that retirement is not always permanent.

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RUDYARD KIPLING

Born: December 30, 1865

Bombay, India

Died: January 18, 1936

Burwash, England

English writer and poet

The English poet and story writer Rudyard Kipling was one of the first masters of the short story in English, and he was the first to use Cockney dialect (the manner in which natives of London, England's, East End speak) in serious poetry.

Early life

Joseph Rudyard Kipling was born on December 30, 1865, in Bombay, India. His father was professor of architectural sculpture at the Bombay School of Art. In 1871 Kipling was sent to England for his education. In 1878 Rudyard entered the United Services College at Westward Ho!, a boarding

school in Devon. There young "Gigger," as he was called, endured bullying and harsh discipline, but he also enjoyed the close friendships, practical jokes, and merry pranks he later recorded in *Stalky & Co.* (1899).

Kipling's closest friend at Westward Ho!, George Beresford, described him as a short, but "cheery, capering, podgy, little fellow" with a thick pair of spectacles over "a broad smile." His eyes were brilliant blue, and over them his heavy black eyebrows moved up and down as he talked. Another close friend was the headmaster, (the principal of a private school) "Crom" Price, who encouraged Kipling's literary ambitions by having him edit the school paper and praising the poems which he wrote for it. When Kipling sent some of these to India, his father had them privately printed as *Schoolboy Lyrics* (1881), Kipling's first published work.

Young journalist

In 1882 Kipling rejoined his parents in Lahore, India, where he became a copy editor (one who edits newspaper articles) for the *Civil and Military Gazette*. In 1887 he moved to the *Allahabad Pioneer*, a better paper, which gave him greater liberty in his writing. He published satiric (sharply or bitterly witty) verses, *Departmental Ditties* in 1886, and over seventy short stories in 1888 in seven paperback volumes. In style, these stories showed the influence of the writers Edgar Allan Poe (1809–1849), Bret Harte (1836–1902), and Guy de Maupassant (1850–1893). The subjects, however, were Kipling's own. He wrote about Anglo-Indian society, which he readily criticized with an acid pen, and the life of the common British soldier and the Indian native, which he portrayed accurately and sympathetically.



Rudyard Kipling.

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Fame in England

In 1889 Kipling took a long voyage through China, Japan, and the United States. When he reached London, he found that his stories had preceded him and established him as a brilliant new author. He was readily accepted into the circle of leading writers. While there he wrote a number of stories and some of his best-remembered poems: "A Ballad of East and West," "Mandalay," and "The English Flag." He also introduced English readers to a "new genre [type]" of serious poems in Cockney dialect: "Danny Deever," "Tommy," "Fuzzy-Wuzzy," and "Gunga Din."

Kipling's first novel, *The Light That Failed* (1891), was unsuccessful. But when his stories were collected as *Life's Handicap* (1891) and poems as *Barrackroom Ballads* (1892), Kipling replaced Alfred, Lord Tennyson (1809–1892) as the most popular English author.

The American years

In 1892 Kipling married Caroline Balestier. They settled on the Balestier estate near Brattleboro, Vermont, in the United States, and began four of the happiest years of Kipling's life. During this time he wrote some of his best work—*Many Inventions* (1893), perhaps his best volume of short stories; *The Jungle Book* (1894) and *The Second Jungle Book* (1895), two books of animal fables that attracted readers of all ages by illustrating the larger truths of life; *The Seven Seas* (1896), a collection of poems in experimental rhythms; and *Captains Courageous* (1897), a novel-length, sea story. These works not only assured Kipling's lasting fame as a serious writer but also made him a rich man.

His imperialism

In 1897 the Kiplings settled in Rottingdean, a village on the British coast near Brighton. The outbreak of the Spanish-American War (1898; a short war between Spain and the United States over lands including Cuba and the Philippines) and the Boer War (1899–1902; a war between Great Britain and South Africa) turned Kipling's attention to colonial affairs. He began to publish a number of solemn poems in standard English in the *London Times*. The most famous of these, "Recessional" (July 17, 1897), issued a warning to Englishmen to regard their accomplishments in the Diamond Jubilee

(fiftieth) year of Queen Victoria's (1819–1901) reign with humility and awe rather than pride and arrogance. The equally well-known “White Man’s Burden” (February 4, 1899) clearly expressed the attitudes toward the empire that are implied in the stories in *The Day’s Work* (1898) and *A Fleet in Being* (1898).

Kipling referred to less highly developed peoples as “lesser breeds” and considered order, discipline, sacrifice, and humility to be the essential qualities of colonial rulers. These views have been denounced as racist (believing that one race is better than others), elitist (believing oneself to be a part of a superior group), and jingoistic (pertaining to a patriot who speaks in favor of an aggressive and warlike foreign policy). But for Kipling, the term “white man” indicated citizens of the more highly developed nations. He felt it was their duty to spread law, literacy, and morality throughout the world.

During the Boer War, Kipling spent several months in South Africa, where he raised funds for soldiers’ relief and worked on an army newspaper, the *Friend*. In 1901 Kipling published *Kim*, the last and most charming of his portrayals of Indian life. But anti-imperialist reaction following the end of the Boer War caused a decline in Kipling’s popularity.

When Kipling published *The Five Nations*, a book of South African verse, in 1903, he was attacked in parodies (satirical imitations), caricatures (exaggerations for comic effect), and serious protests as the opponent of a growing spirit of peace and democratic equality. Kipling retired to “Batemans,” a house near Burwash, a secluded village in Essex.

Later works

Kipling now turned from the wide empire as his subject to simply England itself. In 1902 he published *Just So Stories for Little Children*. He also issued two books of stories of England’s past—*Puck of Pook’s Hill* (1906) and *Rewards and Fairies* (1910). Like the *Jungle Books* they were intended for young readers but were suitable for adults as well. His most significant work at this time was a number of volumes of short stories written in a different style—“Traffics and Discoveries” (1904), “Actions and Reactions” (1904), “A Diversity of Creatures” (1917), “Debits and Credits” (1926), and “Limits and Renewals” (1932).

Kipling’s later stories treat more complex, subtle, and somber (serious) subjects. They reflect Kipling’s darkened worldview following the death of his daughter, Josephine, in 1899, and the death of his son, John, in 1915. Consequently, these stories have never been as popular as his earlier works. But modern critics, in reevaluating Kipling, have found a greater power and depth that make them among his best work.

In 1907 Kipling became the first English writer to receive the Nobel Prize in Literature. He died on January 18, 1936, and is buried in Westminster Abbey in London, England. His autobiography, *Something of Myself*, was published in 1937.

Rudyard Kipling’s early stories and poems about life in colonial India made him a great favorite with English readers. His support of English imperialism (the policy of extending the rule of a nation over foreign countries) at first contributed to this popularity but caused a reaction against him in the twentieth century. Today he is best known for his *Jungle Books* and *Kim, a Story of India*.

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HENRY KISSINGER

Born: May 27, 1923

Furth, Germany

German-born American government official

A leading expert on international relations since the 1950s, Henry Kissinger was secretary of state under Presidents Richard Nixon (1913–1994) and Gerald Ford (1913–). His impressive career also includes becoming the cowinner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1973.

Early life and education

Henry Kissinger was born Heinz Alfred Kissinger on May 27, 1923, in Furth, Germany. He was the first of the two sons of Paula Stern Kissinger and Louis Kissinger. His father was a teacher who lost his job and career when the Nazis, carrying out the orders of Adolf Hitler (1889–1945), began

persecuting (causing people to suffer for their beliefs) Jewish people in Germany. (The Nazi party was in control of the government of Germany from 1933 to 1945.) As a boy Kissinger loved sports but was a better student than athlete. When German anti-Semitism (hatred of Jewish people) increased, the family decided to leave Germany in 1938, moving first to England and then several months later to the United States. The family settled in New York City, where Kissinger completed high school and began taking night classes at City College with the intention of becoming an accountant. While attending college he worked at a factory during the day.

During World War II (1939–45; a war involving the United States and many other countries in the world in which millions of people lost their lives) Kissinger joined the military and served in Germany, working in Army Intelligence. He also became an American citizen during the war. Following the war Kissinger remained in Europe as an instructor at the European Command Intelligence School in Germany. In 1947 he returned to the United States and enrolled at Harvard University. He graduated in the class of 1950 with a degree in government. He continued his studies as a graduate student, earning his master's degree in 1952 and his Ph.D. in 1954, while also teaching at the university.

An expert on international affairs

Between 1952 and 1969 Kissinger directed the Harvard International Seminar, a type of study in which advanced students, led by a professor, conduct research, share their findings, and contribute to discussions. The seminar was held during the summer months.

In this position, he was visited by many international figures with whom he would later deal as a foreign-affairs official. As part of the Council on Foreign Relations he published *Nuclear Weapons and Foreign Policy*, which added to his reputation as a leading expert on international relations and national defense policy. For eighteen months beginning in 1956 he was director of a Rockefeller Brothers Fund special studies project—a program developed to investigate possible domestic and international problems. In 1957 he became a lecturer (public speaker) at Harvard. He was promoted to professor in 1962.

Kissinger served as a consultant (one who gives professional advice) to the National Security Council, to the Arms Control Disarmament Agency, and to the Rand Corporation. From 1962 to 1965 he worked full time at Harvard. In 1965 he became a consultant to the State Department on Vietnam. He visited Vietnam several times between 1965 and 1967. Most of 1968 he spent working on the unsuccessful bid of New York Governor Nelson Rockefeller (1908–1979) for the Republican nomination for the presidency. In spite of Rockefeller's defeat by Richard Nixon, at Rockefeller's urging Nixon considered and appointed Kissinger to head the National Security Council.

Kissinger did not agree with the U.S. foreign policy toward the Soviet Union that had been developed under former presidents. He thought their positions had been inconsistent and too friendly. Kissinger viewed the Soviet Union as the main opponent of the United States in international affairs, but he had respect for the role of the Soviet Union as one of the superpowers. His attempts to ease tensions, known as *détente* (day-TAHNT),



Henry Kissinger.

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improved relations between the Soviet Union and the United States. As a result, one of Kissinger's early successes during this period of *détente* was the completion of talks on the Strategic Arms Limitations Treaty (SALT). SALT was an agreement between the Soviet Union and the United States to limit the number of nuclear weapons in each country. The discussions lasted for nearly three years and ended with the signing of an agreement in Moscow, Russia, by President Nixon and Soviet Communist Party Chief Leonid Brezhnev (1906–1982).

Kissinger also played an important part in the settlement of the Quadripartite Agree-

ment on Berlin, Germany, in September 1971. Berlin had been the source of problems between the East and West for many years, particularly after the creation of the Berlin Wall by the East German government in 1961 to prevent people from leaving the country. Through official negotiations (give-and-take discussions to settle an issue) handled by Ambassador Kenneth Rush (1910–1994), and secret negotiations directly involving Kissinger, an agreement was made to make it easier to travel between East and West Berlin. This agreement also improved relations between the United States and the former Soviet Union.

China, Vietnam, Middle East

Another of Kissinger's successes (and one that caught the media by surprise) was the organization of Richard Nixon's approach to China. The United States had refused to recognize the People's Republic of China following the civil war that left Communists under Mao Zedong (1893–1976). Communists believe in revolution to establish a system in which the means of production—land, factories, mines, and so on—are owned by all people in common. Early in Nixon's first term as president, efforts were made to allow interaction between China and the United States. Taking advantage of international conditions and moving secretly with the help of Pakistani President Yahya Khan (1917–1980), Kissinger flew to China and arranged for an invitation for Nixon to make an official state visit. Nixon's visit to China in 1972 provided guidelines for the establishment of U.S.-China relations. During his eight years in the National Security Council and State Department, Kissinger flew to China a total of nine times.

Kissinger was criticized most and forgiven least for his handling of the fighting in Southeast Asia. The U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War (1955–75) had driven President Lyndon Johnson (1908–1973) from office, and it had been the desire of the Nixon administration to seek "peace with honor." The Vietnam War was a war in which the government of South Vietnam, with U.S. assistance, fought against a Communist takeover by North Vietnam. Kissinger's approach was to negotiate from a position of strength. The direct U.S. involvement in Vietnam reflected this position, but the secret bombing of Cambodia—referred to as the "secret war"—was criticized as an excessive use of military strength to force U.S. opponents to agree to end the war. All U.S. involvement in Southeast Asia was an attempt to keep Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos from becoming controlled by Communist groups. The secret bombing of Cambodia was eventually stopped by actions of Congress. Kissinger successfully negotiated a truce with his North Vietnamese counterpart Le Duc Tho (1911–1990) in Paris and shared the Nobel Peace Prize in 1973 with him.

Kissinger had gone along with the wishes of Secretary of State William Rogers (1913–2001) while on the National Security Council. Following his appointment as secretary of state in 1973, he changed his hands-off policy toward the Middle East. During the three years he was secretary of state, Kissinger conducted what became known as "shuttle" diplomacy (negotiations between nations). He served as the middleman in negotiations to restore peace among Middle Eastern nations. Kissinger would often fly from Egypt to Israel to Syria or elsewhere and back again as he worked to help develop

agreements to secure peace. In all, Kissinger made eleven “shuttle” missions, the longest lasting nearly a month.

Out of office

After leaving office following Ford's loss to Jimmy Carter (1924–) in the 1976 presidential election, Kissinger was self-employed as the director of a consulting firm dealing with international politics. He received the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the nation's highest award given to a civilian (nonmember of a military, police, or fire-fighting unit), in 1977. He also received the Medal of Liberty, an award that was given only once, in 1986, to ten foreign-born American leaders.

Kissinger produced two books of memoirs (accounts of his experiences) to explain events that had happened while he was in office. These explanations did not change the views of many critics, who believed that Kissinger had made major mistakes in developing U.S. foreign policy. In 1997 former Secretaries of State Kissinger and Alexander Haig (1924–) came under fire for their roles in helping U.S.-China trade. Some said that they stood to profit from contracts with the Chinese and that some of their dealings put the United States in a vulnerable (open to attack or damage) position. In 2001 Kissinger was named chancellor (president) of the College of William and Mary in Williamsburg, Virginia.

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CALVIN KLEIN

Born: November 19, 1942

Bronx, New York

American fashion designer

One of America's top fashion designers, Calvin Klein first made a name for himself by designing clean, uncomplicated sportswear. He kept his name popular with the public by creating sometimes shocking and always news-making advertising campaigns.

His early years

Calvin Richard Klein was born on November 19, 1942, in the Bronx, New York, where he spent all of his childhood. Klein was the second of three children born to Flo and Leo Stern. The family lived relatively comfortably. His grandmother was a seamstress and he acquired his love of sewing from her. His mother encouraged his love of art and fashion.

Klein attended the High School of Art and Design, which prepared students for



Calvin Klein.

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careers in advertising and drafting. As a youth, while others his age were playing sports, Klein was busy studying, sketching fashion designs, and sewing. Later he moved on to the esteemed Fashion Institute of Technology, graduating in 1962. He spent five years as an apprentice (a student working toward learning a skill) in a coat and suit house on Seventh Avenue in New York City, working long nights and weekends to perfect his own designs.

In 1968 Klein and close childhood friend Barry Schwartz created a Calvin Klein coat business. The first order was actually obtained by accident. A coat buyer from Bonwit Teller

(a large New York City clothing store) got off on the wrong floor of a hotel and wandered into Klein's workroom. She placed an order for \$50 thousand, which was a huge amount at that time. Encouraged by favorable reviews from the fashion press and the support of store executives, Klein expanded his line to include women's sportswear.

Klein's world soon included his couture (fashionable custom-made women's clothing) line, Calvin Klein Collection for men and women, CK sportswear for men and women, and CK jeans. He also licensed arrangements for his menswear, coats, accessories, intimate apparel, hosiery, swimwear, eyewear, furs, socks, and fragrances, all under his careful control and management.

Of the many categories licensed, denim jeans, along with fragrances, built a large following among consumers, who sought an affordable way to attain the Calvin Klein look. By 1997 sales of Calvin Klein Jeans approached half a billion dollars.

Marketing approach was never subtle

Advertising was the key to Klein's success. He kept the media talking about him by creating controversy (open to dispute). He was the first to design women's underwear that looked like men's jockey shorts. His television ads for jeans starred Brooke Shields (1965–), who proclaimed: "Nothing comes between me and my Calvins."

Klein developed a reputation for pushing the boundaries of acceptability in his campaigns. Ads of the mid-1990s featured young teenagers in provocative poses that many regarded as socially irresponsible. Klein eventually cancelled these ads, but not

before the accompanying publicity had made the Calvin Klein brand name a part of everyday conversation.

Klein's three major fragrances, Obsession, Eternity, and Escape, were huge successes, also due in part to sexually-suggestive advertising. Advertising for his fragrances, CK One and CK Be, continued to challenge the public. Some ads showed teens taking part in what some regarded as an idealized drug culture. At this time, President Bill Clinton (1946–) admonished the fashion industry not to glamorize addiction. Klein replied that these ads represented a departure from phony airbrushed images that were not connected to the reality of today's world.

Design philosophy affirmed

Klein's design philosophy is rooted in minimalism (extreme simplicity). He typically uses neutral colors or earth tones (browns), and designs separates (articles of clothing designed to be worn interchangeably with others to form various combinations) that work in many different ensembles, from day to night and season to season. At the same time his advertising for jeans and fragrances was being criticized, Calvin Klein clothing was receiving critical acclaim for its clean, modern lines.

Time magazine named Klein one of the twenty-five most influential Americans in 1996. Klein won the prestigious Coty Award three times in a row (1973–1975), becoming the youngest designer to ever have that honor. In 1982, 1983, and 1986 he also captured the Council of Fashion Designers of America Award. In addition Klein built a financially strong company with the continued advice and help of partner Barry

Schwartz, who guided the company through tough financial times in the late 1980s. Few designers have rivaled his worldwide empire.

Klein's personal life also weathered the times. He married Jayne Centre in 1964, but they divorced in 1974. They had one child, Marci. He married one of his design assistants, Kelly Rector, in 1986.

Klein is known for his "casual chic" clothing, stylish but casual designs created for active women. He is undoubtedly one of the most successful American clothing designers today.

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KUBLAI KHAN

Born: 1215

Mongolia

Died: February 1294

Ta-tu (Peking), China

Mongolian emperor

Kublai Khan was the greatest of the Mongol emperors after Genghis Khan and founder of the Yüan Dynasty in

China. He was a wise ruler and was able to lead a vast empire of nations by adapting different traditions to his own government.

Early life

Kublai Khan was the fourth son of Tülē and the grandson of Genghis Khan (c. 1165–1227), the founder of the Mongol Empire. Strong, brave, and intelligent, Kublai was Genghis's favorite grandson; he had accompanied his father, Tülē, in battles as a child. By the age of twelve he was a skilled horseman, and his reputation as a warrior grew as he became older. Kublai was seventeen when his father died.

In 1251 Kublai was given control over Chinese territories in the eastern part of the empire after his brother, Möngkē, became Great Khan of the Mongol Empire. Kublai organized a group of Chinese advisers to introduce reforms in his territories. Kublai was also put in charge of expeditions with the goal of unifying China under the Mongol emperor. In 1257, unhappy with the progress of the war against the Chinese Sung Dynasty, Möngkē led an expedition into western China but was killed by the Chinese defense in August 1259. In 1260, supported by pro-Chinese groups, Kublai was elected as Möngkē's successor, but his younger brother, Ariq Böge, disputed the election and proclaimed himself khan at Karakorum, Mongolia. In the following years Kublai fought his brother, defeating him in 1264.

Kublai Khan's administration

Under Kublai, the Mongols adopted divide-and-rule tactics. The Mongols and central Asians remained separate from Chinese life; in many ways life for the Chinese

was left basically unchanged. Kublai was also well known for his acceptance of different religions. The rule of the Mongol minority was assured by dividing the population of China into four social classes: the Mongols; the central Asians; the northern Chinese and Koreans; and the southern Chinese. The first two classes enjoyed extensive privileges; the third class held an intermediate position; and the southern Chinese, the most numerous of all, were practically barred from state offices. Separate systems of law were maintained for Chinese and for Mongols. Kublai also reorganized the government, establishing three separate branches to deal with civilian (non-military) affairs, to supervise the military, and to keep an eye on major officials.

Following this reorganization, a new capital city was constructed at present-day Peking, China, in 1267. First called Chung-tu, the city was renamed Ta-tu (or Daidu, "great capital") in 1272. In the eyes of Kublai, leaving some Chinese institutions and customs in place was a political decision. Outside the administration, much of the Mongol way of life still prevailed. The Mongols, especially the military, preserved their tradition as nomads (wanderers). Even within the administration, Chinese influence was controlled by the large numbers of Mongols and central Asians. Kublai Khan named his rule the Yüan Dynasty in 1271. By February 1278 he had destroyed the Sung dynasty and was the unquestioned leader of an empire that stretched across two continents.

Kublai was a great supporter of trade, science, and the arts. He introduced the use of paper money for the entire empire and ordered the creation of a new alphabet for the Mongol language that closely resembled Chi-

nese writing. Kublai also established a system of sea transport and developed inland river and canal routes to move grain from the fertile rice-growing Yangtze River basin to provide food for the growing population. The Grand Canal system was finally extended north to Peking from the Yellow River.

As emperor of China, Kublai demanded loyalty and gifts from other states within the empire. Some of these, such as Annam and Korea, cooperated. To others, Kublai sent messengers asking for payment and attacked if his demands were ignored. Many of these expeditions, however, ended in failure. Twice between 1274 and 1281 Kublai's armies against Japan were either destroyed by storm or crushed by the Japanese because of the Mongols' inability to fight sea battles and the poor quality of their naval forces. Kublai suffered a setback when he failed to conquer the Malay kingdom of Champa in Indochina after a long war (1283–87). Three expeditions to conquer Burma in 1277, 1283, and 1287 also failed. In 1293 near the end of his reign, Kublai launched a naval expedition against the Javanese kingdom of Majapahit, but the Mongol forces had to withdraw after considerable losses.

Contact with the West

Under Kublai, the opening of direct contact between China and the West was made possible by Mongol control of central Asian trade routes and aided by the presence of efficient postal services. In the early thirteenth century, large numbers of Europeans and central Asians made their way to China. The presence of the Mongol power also enabled many Chinese to travel freely within the Mongol Empire, all the way to Russia, Persia, and Meso-



Kublai Khan.

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potamia. There were several direct exchanges of missions between the pope and the Great Khan. In 1266 Kublai entrusted the Polo brothers, two Venetian merchants, to carry a request to the pope for one hundred Christian scholars and technicians. The Polos met with Pope Gregory X (c. 1210–1276) in 1269 and received his blessing but no scholars.

Marco Polo (c. 1254–1324), who accompanied his father on this trip, was probably the best-known foreign visitor ever to set foot in China. It is said that he spent the next seventeen years under Kublai Khan, including official service in the administration and trips through the provinces of Yunnan and Fukien.

The accuracy of his descriptions of China was questioned, but the popularity of his journal generated great interest among Europeans for going east. Rabban Sauma, a monk born in Peking, crossed central Asia to the Il-Khan's court in Mesopotamia in 1278 and was one of those whom the Mongols sent to Europe to seek Christian help against Islam. Under Kublai, the first direct contact and cultural exchange between China and the West had occurred.

Kublai Khan's legacy

After a glorious reign of thirty-four years, Kublai Khan died in Ta-tu in February 1294. He is regarded as one of the great rulers in history. He was a shrewd and thoughtful ruler of a huge state. He was popular among the Chinese, and his achievements ranked him second to Genghis among the Mongol rulers. He showed great intelligence in using partial adoption of Chinese political traditions and divide-and-rule tactics to help in

the administration of a large empire. The main problem with his reign was that as he and his successors became more involved in Chinese traditions, there was a growing conflict between the Mongol rulers of China and those of the other khanates within the Mongol confederacy. They preferred to maintain their own character instead of looking toward China for leadership.

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MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE

Born: September 6, 1757

Auvergne, France

Died: May 20, 1834

Paris, France

French general

The Marquis de Lafayette was a French general who played important roles in two revolutions in France and volunteered his time and money to help the American cause during the Revolutionary War (1775–83).

Early life

Marie Joseph Paul Yves Roch Gilbert du Motier, Marquis de Lafayette was born on September 6, 1757, in the province of Auvergne, France. His father was killed while fighting against the British in the Seven Years' War (1756–63). His mother and grandfather died when he was thirteen, leaving him a wealthy orphan. After studying in the Collège du Plessis in Paris, France, Lafayette joined the French army in 1771. In 1773 he married Adrienne de Noailles. However, he was not ready to settle down to the life of a wealthy man. After the outbreak of the American Revolution, he volunteered to help the new country in its fight against France's historic enemy, England.



Marquis de Lafayette.

Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery.

American Revolution

King Louis XVI (1754–1793) refused to allow Lafayette to go to America, but Lafayette sailed anyway, after buying a ship with his own money. In June 1777 he landed in North Carolina. The Continental Congress had given him a commission as a major general, but his actual duties were as assistant to General George Washington (1732–1799). He assisted in battles against the British in Pennsylvania and New Jersey and eventually was sent back to France in an attempt to obtain greater French support for the Americans.

Upon returning to his homeland in 1779, Lafayette was arrested for having dis-

obeyed the king, but all was soon forgiven. Although not all his proposals for aid to the Americans were approved, Lafayette returned to America in 1780 in command of French forces that were sent to help. In 1781 he was given command of the defense of Virginia with the rank of major general. He drew English commander Charles Cornwallis (1738–1805) into a trap at Yorktown, Virginia; Cornwallis was blockaded by the American forces and by French troops under Admiral de Grasse. Cornwallis's surrender was the high point of Lafayette's military career.

Return to France

When Lafayette returned to the French army in 1782, he was considered a hero. He became a leader in the movement against the French monarchy (absolute rule by a single person). In 1789 he took a seat in the Estates General, the French legislature. The adoption of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (loosely based on the Declaration of Independence) was his idea, and he was given the command of the Parisian National Guard, a force of citizen-soldiers created to defend the new constitutional monarchy. Lafayette favored a moderate course (a gradual rate of change) for the Revolution but found that many others were not so willing to wait. His popularity declined, and his command to his troops to fire on a mob in 1791 led to his dismissal as command of the guard.

However, the beginning of war against Austria and Prussia in 1792 returned Lafayette to military life as commander of the army of the Ardennes. In August he crossed over into Austria with a few fellow officers. He was captured and held as a prisoner of war until 1797, when Napoleon Bonaparte

(1769–1821) obtained his release from jail but did not permit him to return to France. Lafayette had become so politically powerless that when he did return in 1799 without permission, he was given a military pension and allowed to live quietly in Lagrange, France.

Last years

When Napoleon stepped down as emperor in 1814, Lafayette was elected to the Legislative Chamber and demanded that Napoleon be kept out permanently. The return to power of the monarchy in 1815 after the Hundred Days (Napoleon's brief second reign) returned Lafayette to a position as a leader of the opposition to Kings Louis XVIII and Charles X. In 1824 Lafayette visited America as a guest of the government on a tour that lasted fifteen months. Congress rewarded him for his efforts during the American Revolution with money and land. When he returned to France in 1825, he was known as the "hero of two worlds."

Lafayette did not regain political prominence until revolution broke out again in 1830. Named to command the reestablished National Guard, he supported the naming of Louis Philippe as a constitutional monarch. He was dismissed from the guard the following year and became a critic of the new king. When Lafayette died in Paris on May 20, 1834, he had few followers left. His biggest influence was as a living symbol—of friendship between France and America, and of the men who wanted a better world but could not accept terror and cruelty as the ways to bring it into being.

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LAO TZU

Born: Sixth century B.C.E.

China

Died: Sixth century B.C.E.

China

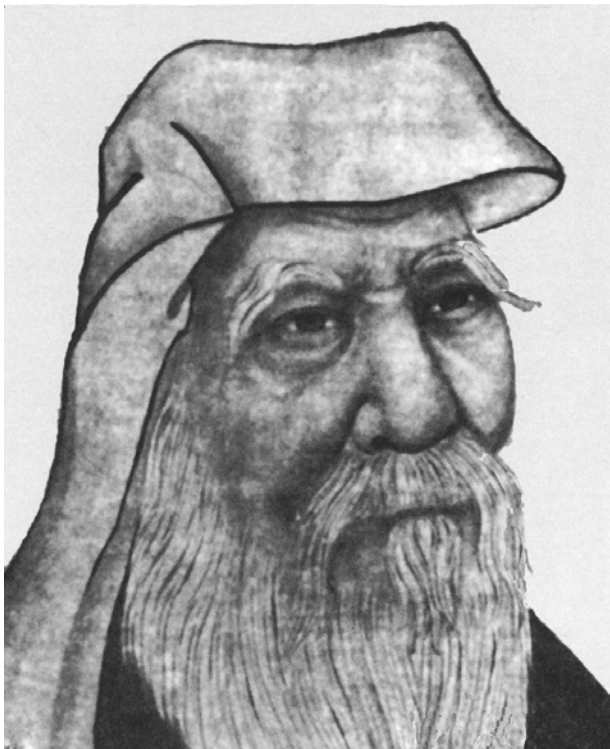
Chinese philosopher

Lao Tzu is believed to have been a Chinese philosopher (a person who seeks to answer questions about humans and their place in the universe) and the accepted author of the *Tao te ching*, the main text of Taoist thought. He is considered the father of Chinese Taoism (a philosophy that advocates living a simple life).

Three Lao Tzus

The main source of information on Lao Tzu's life is a biography written by the historian Ssu-ma Ch'ien (145–86 B.C.E.) in his *Records of the Historian*. By this time a number of traditions or beliefs about the founder of Chinese

LAO TZU



Lao Tzu.

Taoism were going around, and Ssu-ma Ch'ien himself was unsure of their authenticity. The biography in fact contains an account of not one but three men called Lao Tzu.

The first Lao Tzu was a man named Li Erh or Li Tan, who came from the village of Ch'ü-jen in the southern Chinese state of Ch'u. Li Erh served as historian in charge of the official records in the Chinese imperial capital of Loyang. He was a peer of the famous Chinese philosopher Confucius (551–479 B.C.E.), and he is reported to have given an interview to Confucius when he came to Loyang seeking information on the Chou ritual.

Another man identified as the founder of Taoism was Lao Lai Tzu, who also came from

Ch'u. He is said to be a person of the same age as Confucius and is credited with a fifteen-chapter book explaining the teachings of the Taoist school. Nothing more is known about the second Lao Tzu.

According to a third account, the original Lao Tzu lived 129 years after the death of Confucius. This man went by the name of Tan, the historian of Chou. Actually, it is impossible to prove the historical accuracy of any of these accounts. Lao Tzu is not really a person's name and is only a complimentary name meaning "old man." It was common in this period to refer to respected philosophers and teachers with words meaning "old" or "mature." It is possible that a man who assumed the pseudonym (assumed name) Lao Tzu was a historical person, but the term Lao Tzu also was used as a substitute title to the supreme Taoist classic, *Tao te ching* (Classic of the Way and the Power).

According to Ssu-ma Ch'ien, Lao Tzu had been serving in the Chou capital for a long time. He became unhappy with the dishonest political situation and decided to go into retirement. As he was passing through the Hanku Pass west of Loyang, the gatekeeper stopped him and asked him to write down a book of his teachings. Lao Tzu then composed a book of five thousand sayings in two sections that described the theory of the *tao* and *te*. This book was then known as the *Tao te ching*.

Lao Tzu is frequently associated with the other famous early Chinese thinker, Confucius. There are numerous stories about debates that supposedly took place between these two great philosophers in which Lao Tzu was always the winner. These stories are undoubtedly anti-Confucian publicity circu-

lated by members of the Taoist school, perhaps as early as the fourth century B.C.E.

Tao te ching

Lao Tzu's *Tao te ching* itself is a collection of sayings describing the principal Taoist teachings. Most scholars now agree that Lao Tzu did not write this book, mainly because no one knows whether he was a historical person. The most convincing theory is that there were a large number of proverbs (wise sayings) that were part of the Taoist teaching. They were memorized and passed on from teacher to pupil. Eventually the best of these sayings were collected and edited into the book, which was then given the title *Tao te ching*. A study of the style and grammar of the work reveals that it must have been put together around the fourth century B.C.E.

Lao Tzu's *Tao te ching* has confused its readers for centuries. Its language is extremely short and unclear. Much of the text is rhymed. Although the work is divided into chapters, the passages in a chapter do not always refer to the same subject. Thus, it hardly qualifies as a well-organized book of philosophical teachings.

The most important concept developed in Lao Tzu's *Tao te ching* is *tao*. *Tao* literally means "road" or "way." In the *Tao te ching* it is portrayed as something that cannot be expressed, a concept beyond definition. "The way (*tao*) that can be told of is not the constant way." *Tao* is so indescribable that the term itself is often not used and is referred to only indirectly. *Tao* stands as the force behind the universe. There is even an indication that it is the universe itself.

An important quality of the *tao* is its "weakness," or "submissiveness." Because the *tao* itself is basically weak and submissive, it

is best for man to put himself in harmony with the *tao*. Thus, the *Tao te ching* places strong emphasis on nonaction (*wu wei*), which means the absence of aggressive action. Man should not strive for wealth or fame, and violence is to be avoided. This peaceful approach to life was extremely influential in later periods and led to the development of a particular Taoist way of living that involved special breathing exercises and special eating habits that were designed to maintain calmness and harmony with the *tao*.

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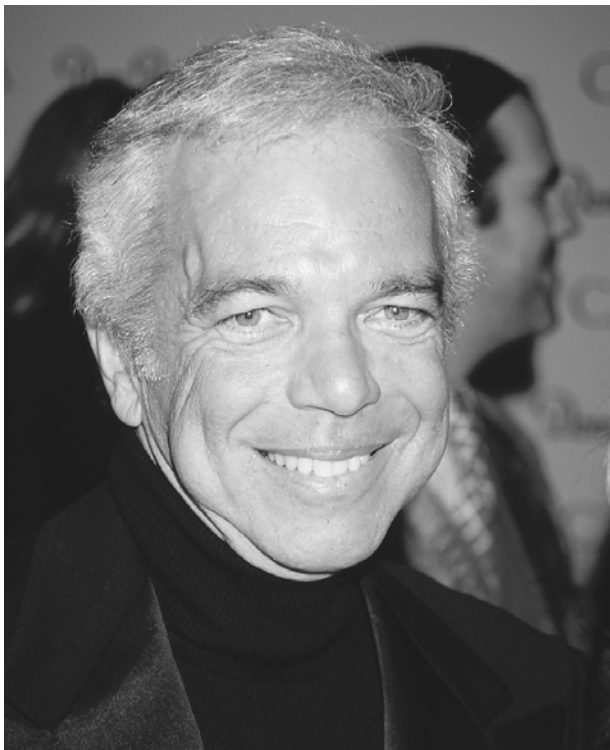
RALPH LAUREN

Born: October 14, 1939

New York, New York

American designer

The name of American clothing designer Ralph Lauren has become associated with class and taste. In addition to clothing, he designs home deco-



Ralph Lauren.

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rating products such as furniture, bedding, drapes, towels, rugs, china, and silverware.

Early life

The youngest of four children, Ralph Lifshitz was born in the Bronx, New York, on October 14, 1939. His father was a housepainter. Ralph became interested in clothes when he was in seventh grade. While attending DeWitt Clinton High School in New York, he worked part-time for New York department stores, saving his money to buy clothes. He changed his name to Lauren in the mid-1950s. After graduating from high school he worked as a salesman and began

studying business at night. He quit school after a few months, spent time in the army, and then looked for a job in fashion.

Creates popular fashions

In 1967 Lauren was hired by Beau Brummell Ties as a designer. His wide, colorful ties were the opposite of the narrow dark neckties common at the time; they sold well and started a new trend. Lauren started his own company and the next year launched a line of men's clothing, Polo, offering styles that were a mix of English and American styles and that expressed an image of class. Lauren's menswear was a success, and in 1971 he introduced his women's line. As the years went by he continued to branch out into children's clothes, colognes, footwear, home products, and other merchandise.

Lauren designed costumes for the films *The Great Gatsby* (1973) and *Annie Hall* (1978) that influenced the way millions dressed. Modestly describing his work, Lauren stated, "I believe in clothes that last, that are not dated in a season. The people who wear my clothes don't think of them as fashion.' Lauren's vision was to represent American style with a dash of British elegance and the comfort of natural fibers.

Lauren lived the image he projected, and he was often featured with his family in magazines devoted to lives of the rich and famous. He was also the first designer to appear in his own advertising. One of the secrets of Lauren's success lay in his attention to detail, always checking product quality and maintaining tight control over the brand image he crafted so carefully. Lauren's fashion formula earned many honors from his peers. He had seven Coty design awards and was

inducted into the Coty Hall of Fame in 1986. In 1992 he received the Lifetime Achievement Award from the Council of American Fashion Designers and a tribute for twenty-five years of impact on American style from the Woolmark Awards. The Council of Fashion Designers later elected him Designer of the Year in 1996.

Smart businessman

In 1971 Lauren opened his first retail store in Beverly Hills, California, building toward a total of 116 Polo-Ralph Lauren stores in the United States as well as 1,300 boutiques (small shops within department stores). In 1986 he made fashion retailing history with a large megastore housed in the elegant former Rhinelander Mansion in New York. John Fairchild, chairman of *Women's Wear Daily*, called it "The best boutique in America, probably the world." Consumers responded, spending over \$5 billion a year by 1997 to have the Lauren look and making him the best-selling designer in the world.

Two major new ventures begun in 1995 took Lauren into the highly competitive blue jean and mass-market women's clothing categories. Both took the Lauren name to a new customer at lower prices and were instant hits. In 1996 Lauren's Home Collection contributed about \$535 million in sales worldwide—more than any other designer. Paints were launched the same year, along with instruction videos and all the tools needed to create the living environment of one's choice. By 1997 investment bankers were fighting for the opportunity to help Lauren put his company on the stock market.

In 1998 Lauren announced that his company would donate \$13 million to the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D.C., mainly to preserve the original American flag that inspired the writing of "The Star-Spangled Banner" in 1812. That same year he was honored for his efforts to raise money for research into a cure for breast cancer. In 2000 the company's Web site, Polo.com, was introduced, allowing online access to all Ralph Lauren products. Lauren's charitable contributions continued with the creation of the Polo Volunteer Program and the contribution of \$5 million to establish the Ralph Lauren Center for Cancer Prevention and Care at North General Hospital in Harlem, New York.

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EMMA LAZARUS

Born: July 22, 1849

New York, New York

Died: November 19, 1887

New York, New York

American poet



Emma Lazarus.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Emma Lazarus, an American poet, is best known as a spokesperson for the Jewish people. Her faith in America as a safe place for all the suffering people of the world is expressed in her poem inscribed on the Statue of Liberty in New York, New York.

Early life and writings

Emma Lazarus was born in New York City on July 22, 1849. She was the daughter of Moses and Esther Nathan Lazarus. Her father was a wealthy sugar merchant. Emma and her sisters were educated by private tutors and spent their summers at the

seashore in Rhode Island. Emma read many of the books in her father's library and quickly learned other languages, including Italian, French, and German. At the age of eleven she began writing poems with traditional romantic themes and translating the works of German and French poets.

When Emma was seventeen her father paid to have her first collection of poems printed. *Poems and Translations* (public edition 1867) was followed by *Admetus and Other Poems* (1871). These poems so pleased the writer Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882) that he invited Lazarus to visit him, beginning a correspondence that lasted throughout her life. Lazarus also received support and advice from other male writers throughout her life, including the novelist Henry James (1843–1916).

Lazarus's work began appearing regularly in *Lippincott's Magazine* and *Scribner's Monthly*. In 1874 she published her first prose (a style of writing closer to normal speech than poetry), *Alide: An Episode of Goethe's Life*. Her five-act drama, *The Spagnoletto* (1876), which focuses on Italy in 1655, was not as well received as her poetry. Her translation of the German poet Heinrich Heine's (1797–1856) *Poems and Ballads* (1881) was considered the best version of Heine in English at the time.

Supporter of Jewish people

The turning point in Lazarus's life was the outbreak of violent anti-Semitism (hatred of Jewish people) in Russia and Germany during the early 1880s. When a writer defended these activities in the *Century Magazine*, Lazarus wrote the angry reply "Russian Christianity versus Modern Judaism" in the next

issue. From this moment on she began a private crusade for her people. Her verse took on a new tone of urgency, a call for Zionism (the movement for the creation of an independent Jewish state), particularly in *Songs of a Semite* (1882) and in her play of twelfth-century Jewish life, *The Dance to Death*. More importantly, she began to organize relief efforts for the thousands of Jewish immigrants crowding into the United States and to write a series of articles for the magazine *American Hebrew*.

Later years

In 1883 Lazarus sailed for England, where she was received with great enthusiasm for her work on behalf of Jewish immigrants. She made so many friends among the Zionists that she returned in 1885, spending the next two years traveling in England, France, and Italy. Cancer cut her career short. She returned to New York City shortly before her death from cancer on November 19, 1887. Lazarus's poem "The New Colossus" was engraved on the base of the Statue of Liberty in New York harbor before its dedication in 1886. The poem was a fitting tribute to her faith in American ideals.

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MARY LEAKEY

Born: February 6, 1913

London, England

Died: December 9, 1996

Nairobi, Kenya

English archaeologist

Mary Leakey was a major figure in the uncovering of East African prehistory, best known for her excavations (digging for fossils) of some of the earliest members of the human family, their footprints, and their artifacts (any tools, weapons, or other items made by humans).

Early life

Mary Douglas Leakey was born Mary Douglas Nicol in London, England, on February 6, 1913. She was the only child of Erskine Nicol, a landscape painter, and Cecilia Frere Nicol. Much of her childhood was spent traveling abroad with her parents, except during World War I (1914–18; a war that involved many countries in the world including France, Great Britain, Russia, the United States, and their allies fighting against Austria-Hungary, Germany, and their allies) when her family spent the time in England. At the house of her mother's aunts and grandmother in London she was first introduced to dogs, marking the beginning of her strong affection for animals, an important part of her life. After the war, Mary's family resumed its annual cycle of European travel, followed by a return to London in summer to sell the paintings that her father produced on their travels.



Mary Leakey.

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Education and early career

Mary's early education was largely informal, although she did attend school in France for a short time. Her father taught her to read and some mathematics, and he also inspired her interest in the natural world and in archaeology (the study of ancient human life based on the things that were left behind). While living in the Dordogne region in France, near many prehistoric caves, Mary was exposed to Paleolithic (over 2.5 million years ago; the first period of the Stone Age, a time when stone tools were used by humans) archaeology which, combined with her artistic talents, formed the basis of her career. Her father died

in France in 1926. Mary and her mother returned to England, where she unhappily attended several convent schools in Kensington and Wimbledon. Mary was an independent person and was expelled twice from school for her spirited behavior.

Between 1930 and 1934 Mary took part in excavations at Hembury, Devon, and attended lectures in geology (the branch of science involving the study of the Earth) and archaeology at London University and the London Museum. She also began drawing stone tools for publication. She was introduced to Louis Leakey (1903–1972) as a possible artist for his book *Adam's Ancestors* and was hired. They were married in 1936 and had three children, Jonathan, Richard, and Philip.

Archaeological discoveries in Kenya

Mary moved to Kenya with Louis and worked with him in East Africa for much of her career. She introduced modern archaeological techniques to East Africa. Her initial East African excavations were the Late Stone Age sites at Hyrax Hill and Njoro River Cave, and she was the first person to describe the important dimple-based pottery from East Africa. She also worked at a number of other sites, including Olorgesailie, which was famous for its great number of middle Pleistocene (commonly known as the Ice Age) hand axes. She also worked with Louis on several East African ape sites, and she was instrumental in the recovery of many fossil ape remains. In 1951 Leaky studied and recorded the beautiful Late Pleistocene Tanzanian rock paintings that years later formed the basis of her book *Africa's Vanishing Art*. Although she is best known for her association with human fossil sites, she considered

her work on the rock paintings one of the highlights of her career.

In spite of Mary Leakey's primary interest in art and artifacts, Mary Leakey was best known for her amazing ability to find fossils and for her excavations at two of the most famous hominid (dealing with any of the primate families) fossil sites in East Africa—Olduvai Gorge and Laetoli, both in Tanzania. Beginning in 1960 she established a permanent base camp at Olduvai Gorge from which she directed excavations. The previous year Leakey had discovered the first hominid example from that site, “Zinjanthropus boisei,” whom she and Louis nicknamed the “nutcracker man” because of its huge jaws and molar teeth. “Zinj” is now recognized as the type specimen of *Australopithecus boisei*, an extinct (no longer in existence) side branch of the genus *Homo*. She soon found another hominid more closely related to modern humans, *Homo habilis* or “Handy Man,” providing evidence of coexisting hominid groups one to two million years ago in East Africa. Leakey's research at Olduvai lasted more than twenty years and in spite of many fossil finds focused mainly on the specific descriptions of the archaeology. She initially detailed the archaeology of Beds 1 and 2 and later, more recent levels, contributing greatly to the understanding of Pliocene-Pleistocene (an ancient time period) lifeways.

In 1974 Leakey began well-organized excavations at Laetoli, which produced australopithecine (relating to an extinct form of hominid) skeletal remains the same year. Two years later the first of several sets of bipedal (having two feet) hominid footprints were discovered at the site, proving skeletal evidence for bipedalism (the walking on two

feet) at a very early date. The footprints were made as australopithecines walked, in at least one case together, through an ash fall from a nearby volcano. These finds caught the attention of the world, as they “humanized” the discoveries of our distant relatives. Like many East African early hominid sites, Laetoli was well dated and provided evidence that full bipedal movement, a major human milestone, was achieved by 3.75 million years. While she never accepted the contribution of the Laetoli hominids to *Australopithecus afarensis*, she recognized them as the earliest definite hominid sample known at the time. Laetoli produced a number of skeletal elements of *Pliocene australopithecines*, but ironically, given Leakey's primary interest, no stone artifacts were ever found in these early beds.

Later life

Mary Leakey, in addition to her research, found herself assuming many of Louis's more public roles after she was widowed in 1972. She spent considerable time traveling to give lectures, raise funds, and receive many honors from institutions around the world. Although she always considered herself primarily an archaeologist, and her professional life was of greatest importance to her, she remained involved with her family and was very close to her children and grandchildren. In 1983 she retired to Nairobi, Kenya, to be nearer to her family. There, she continued to work on her manuscripts until her death in December of 1996.

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BRUCE LEE

Born: November 27, 1940

San Francisco, California

Died: July 20, 1973

Hong Kong

American actor and martial arts master

Actor and martial arts expert Bruce Lee combined the Chinese fighting art of kung fu with the grace of a ballet dancer. He helped make kung fu films a new art form before his sudden and mysterious death in 1973.

The “strong one”

In 1939 Lee Hoi Chuen, a Chinese opera singer, brought his wife Grace and three children from Hong Kong to San Francisco, California, while he performed in the United States. On November 27, 1940, the Lees had another son. His mother called the boy Bruce because the name meant “strong one” in Gaelic. His first film appearance, at the age of three months, was in *Golden Gate Girl* (1941). Although Hong Kong was occupied

by Japanese troops, the Lees then decided to return home, where Lee’s film appearances continued, numbering around twenty by the time he graduated from high school.

As a teenager Lee was both a dancer, winning a cha-cha championship, and a gang member, risking death on the Hong Kong streets. To improve his fighting skills, he studied the Chinese martial arts of kung fu. He absorbed the style called wing chun, which was developed by a woman named Yim Wing Chun, and he began adding his own improvements. Lee’s film career continued, and he was offered a large contract. But when he got into trouble with the police for fighting, his mother sent him to the United States to live with friends of the family.

Teacher and actor

After finishing high school in Edison, Washington, Lee enrolled at the University of Washington, supporting himself by giving dance lessons and waiting tables. While teaching kung fu to fellow students, he met Linda Emery, whom he married in 1964. Lee developed a new fighting style called jeet kune do and opened three schools on the West Coast to teach it. He also landed a part in the television series *The Green Hornet* as Kato, the Hornet’s assistant. Kato used a dramatic fighting style quite unlike that which Lee taught in his schools. The show was cancelled after one season, but fans would long remember Lee’s role.

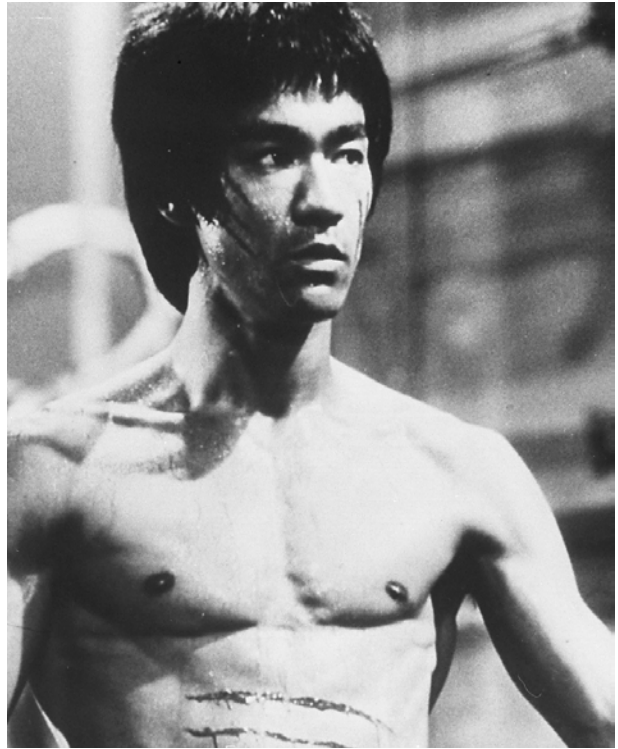
Lee went on to appear on shows such as *Longstreet* and *Ironside* and in the film *Marlowe* (1969), playing a high-kicking villain. Unhappy with the number and quality of roles available to Asian Americans in Hollywood, Lee and his family, including son Brandon and daughter Shannon, moved back to Hong Kong

in 1971. Lee soon released the movie known to U.S. audiences as *Fists of Fury*. The story, featuring Lee as a fighter seeking revenge on those who had killed his kung fu master, was not very original, but with his graceful movements, his good looks and charm, and his acting ability, Lee was a star in the making.

Sudden death

Fists of Fury set box-office records in Hong Kong that were broken only by Lee's next film, *The Chinese Connection* (1972). Lee established his own film company, Concord Pictures, and began directing movies. The first of these would appear in the United States as *Way of the Dragon*. Lee was excited about his future. He told a journalist, "I hope to make . . . the kind of movie where you can just watch the surface story, if you like, or can look deeper into it." Unfortunately, on July 20, 1973, three weeks before his fourth film, *Enter the Dragon*, was released in the United States, Lee died suddenly.

The official cause of Lee's death was brain swelling as a reaction to aspirin he had taken for a back injury. But there were rumors that he had been poisoned by either the Chinese mafia or powerful members of the Hong Kong film industry. Others said that Lee's purchase of a house in Hong Kong had angered neighborhood demons, who then placed a curse on him to last for three generations. This theory was revived on June 18, 1993, when Lee's son Brandon also died under strange circumstances. While filming the movie *The Crow*, he was shot by a gun that was supposed to contain only blanks (which produce the appearance of a gunshot but cause no bullet to be fired) but in fact had a live round in its chamber.



Bruce Lee.

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Bruce Lee's movies, though few in number, created a new art form. By the 1990s *Enter the Dragon* alone had earned more than \$100 million, and Lee's influence could be found in the work of many Hollywood action heroes such as Jean-Claude Van Damme, Steven Seagal, and Jackie Chan. In 1993 Jason Scott Lee (no relation) appeared in *Dragon: The Bruce Lee Story*.

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SPIKE LEE

Born: March 20, 1957

Atlanta, Georgia

*African American filmmaker, actor,
and author/poet*

Controversial (arousing opposing viewpoints) filmmaker Spike Lee is known for powerful films such as *She's Gotta Have It* (1986), *School Daze* (1988), *Do the Right Thing* (1989), *Mo' Better Blues* (1990), *Malcolm X* (1992), and many others.

Lee's youth

Shelton Jackson Lee was born in Atlanta, Georgia, on March 20, 1957. He grew up in Brooklyn, New York. Lee's awareness of his African American identity was established at an early age. His mother, Jacquelyn, encouraged her children's enthusiasm for African American art and literature. She took her

children to galleries, plays, and museums. Her position as a teacher at a private school was often the only income the family had. His father, Bill, was an accomplished jazz musician. Spike would sometimes go with his father to the clubs where he played.

By the time Lee was old enough to attend school, the already independent child had earned the nickname his mother had given him as an infant, Spike—an indirect reference to his toughness. When he, his two younger brothers, and one younger sister were offered the option of attending the chiefly white private school where his mother taught, Lee chose instead to go to public school, where he would be assured the companionship of black peers. He graduated from John Dewey High School in Brooklyn. For college, Lee chose to go to the all-black college his father and grandfather had attended, Morehouse College, where he majored in mass communication.

Pursued film career

It was at Morehouse that Lee found his calling. Following his mother's unexpected death in 1977, Lee's friends tried to cheer him with frequent trips to the movies. He quickly became a fan of directors and movies of that time and discovered that he wanted to make films that would capture the black experience, and he was willing to do so by whatever means necessary.

Lee pursued his passion at New York University (NYU), where he enrolled in the Tisch School of Arts graduate film program. He was one of only a handful of African American students. Lee went on to produce a forty-five-minute film that won him the 1983 Motion Picture Arts and Sciences' Student

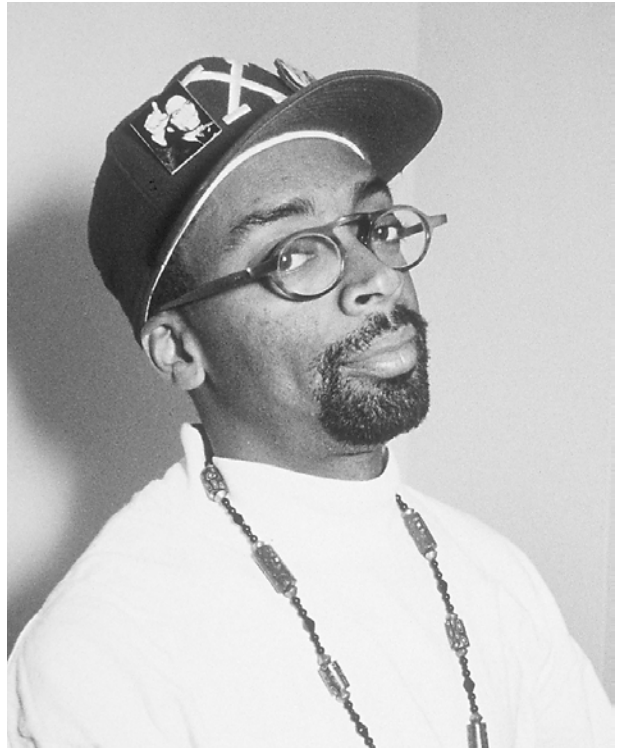
Academy Award, Joe's Bed-Stuy Barbershop: We Cut Heads. Although the honor improved his credibility as a director, it did not pay the bills. Lee worked for a movie distribution house cleaning and shipping film.

Scored a surprise hit with *She's Gotta Have It*

When Lee filmed *She's Gotta Have It* a year later, his determination to be a director paid off. After Island Pictures agreed to distribute the movie, it finally opened in 1986. A light comedy, *She's Gotta Have It* pokes fun at gender relations and offers an insightful spin on stereotypical macho male roles. It packed houses with African American audiences and with a crossover, art-house crowd. With the success of *She's Gotta Have It*, Lee became known in cinematic circles not only as a director, but also as a comic actor. He played a supporting role in the film and was tremendously popular as this character.

School Daze: a microcosm of black life

Lee next made a musical called *School Daze*. A film about color discrimination (treating people differently based on race, gender, or nationality) within the African American community, *School Daze* draws on Lee's years at Morehouse. He saw the lighter skinned African Americans as having the material possessions and polish that the southern, rural students did not have. This black caste (division of society) system, Lee explained to *Newsweek*, was not limited to just this collegiate set. Lee used it as a small sample of black life in general. *School Daze* created a commotion in the black community: while many applauded Lee's efforts to explore a complex social problem, others were offended by his



Spike Lee.

Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.

willingness to "air dirty laundry." Everyone agreed that the film was controversial.

Explored racial tensions in *Do the Right Thing*

Do the Right Thing, released in 1989, confirmed Lee's reputation as someone willing to seize controversial issues by the horns. A story of simmering racial tension between Italian Americans and African Americans in the Bedford-Stuyvesant section of Brooklyn, the film becomes a call to arms when violence erupts in response to the killing of an African American man by white police officers. Critical response to the film was both enthusiastic and wary.

Striking a balance: Mo' Better Blues

Lee chose a lighter topic for his next film—a romance. The saga is about a self-centered jazz trumpeter, Bleek Gilliam, whose personal life plays second fiddle to his music. The movie explores the different relationships this man has with friends, family, and women. Bleek's character was inspired by Lee's jazz-musician father, Bill Lee, who wrote the film's score. Although recognized for its technical mastery and snappy score, *Mo' Better Blues* received unenthusiastic reviews.

In *Jungle Fever*, Lee's next film, he looks at issues of race, class, and gender by focusing on community response to the office affair of a married, black architect and his Italian American secretary. Lee concludes that interracial relationships are often fueled by culturally based, stereotypical expectations.

Malcolm X

Sparking controversy from the beginning, the making of *Malcolm X* (1925–1965) became a personal mission for Lee, who had long been an admirer of the legendary African American leader. The film traces Malcolm X's development from his poor, rural roots to his final years as an activist. Lee worked hard to overcome many obstacles that threatened the creation of his masterpiece. His creative problem solving and dedication to the film were the forces behind its completion.

Although *Malcolm X* received no Oscars, the film played a significant role in the elevation of the black leader to legendary status; it also spawned a cultural phenomenon often referred to as "Malcolm-mania." Promotional merchandise for the film was marketed by Lee himself through Spike's Joint, a chain of

stores that comprise a portion of the director's growing business empire.

Lee is married

In mid-1993 Lee began shooting his seventh feature film, *Crooklyn*, a comic tribute to his childhood memories of life in Brooklyn in the 1970s. He managed to take a break from filming, however, to marry Linette Lewis. Lewis, a lawyer, had been romantically linked to Lee for a year prior to their wedding. *Crooklyn* was released in 1994 to mixed reviews and a mild reception at the box office.

Lee fared far better in 1995 with his next film, *Clockers*. It tells the story of two brothers who fall under suspicion of murder. One, a drug dealer, had been ordered by his supplier to kill the victim. The other, an upstanding family man, confesses to the crime, saying that he was attacked in the parking lot. The film won outstanding reviews, with some critics citing it as Lee's best work.

In 1996 Lee released *Get on the Bus*, which focuses on a diverse group of African American men riding a bus on their way to the Million Man March (a rally organized in 1995 to celebrate the strength of the African American community) in Washington, D.C. They learn to overcome their differences as they unite for the march. Lee followed that film with *4 Little Girls*, a documentary about the bombing of a Birmingham, Alabama, church in 1963, where four African American girls lost their lives.

Lee as a teacher

Lee works as an educator as well. He has taught at New York University and also at Harvard. In March of 2002 Lee became the

artistic director of NYU's Kanbar Institute of Film and Television. He works with students on their thesis projects and helps them to make contacts in the entertainment field. Lee enjoys working with the students and challenges them to work hard.

"Fight the power," the theme song to his 1989 film *Do the Right Thing*, could easily be Spike Lee's personal motto. From his earliest days as a student filmmaker to his \$33-million epic *Malcolm X*, Lee has shown a willingness to tackle prickly issues of significance to the African American community—and has enjoyed the controversy his films produce.

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TSUNG-DAO LEE

Born: November 24, 1926

Shanghai, China

Chinese-born American physicist

Chinese-born physicist (specialist in the relationship between matter and energy) Tsung-Dao Lee was a co-winner of the 1957 Nobel Prize in physics. Lee and his colleague physicist Chen Ning Yang (1922–) developed a theory about behavior of the K-meson (a particle that is smaller than an atom), which resulted in major changes in the science of particle physics.

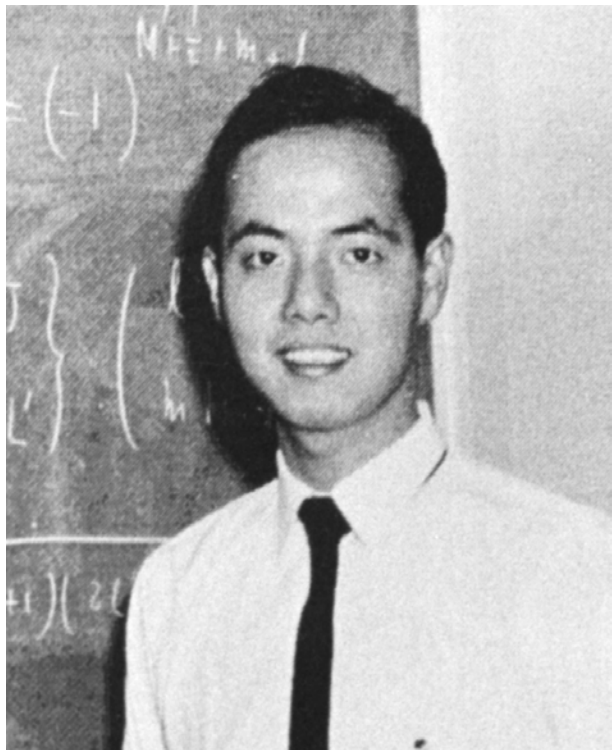
Early life

Tsung-Dao Lee was born in Shanghai, China, on November 24, 1926. He was the third child of businessman Tsing-Kong Lee and his wife Ming-Chang Chang. Lee attended the Kiangsi Middle School in Kanchow, China. After graduation he entered the National Chekian University in Kweichow, China. When Japanese troops invaded the area in 1945, Lee fled to the south, where he continued his studies at the National Southwest Associated University in Kunming, China.

Leaves for the United States

In 1946 Lee was presented with an unusual opportunity. When one of his teachers at Kunming, a physicist named Ta-You Wu, decided to return to the United States (where he had worked toward his doctorate degree), he invited Lee to accompany him. Lee accepted the offer but found himself in a somewhat peculiar position. He had only completed two years of college and found that only one American university, the University of Chicago, would accept him for graduate study without a degree. He decided to enroll there. Lee married Hui-Chung Chin (also known as Jeanette) in 1950, while they were both students at Chicago. The couple eventually had two sons.

LEE, TSUNG-DAO



Tsung-Dao Lee.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

In Chicago, after working under physicist Enrico Fermi (1901–1954), Lee was awarded his doctorate in 1950 for his study of the amount of hydrogen in white dwarf stars (stars of low brightness with a mass similar to that of the sun). Lee also renewed his friendship with physicist Chen Ning Yang, whom he had known in Kunming. The two began working together. In 1950 Lee went to the Yerkes Astronomical Observatory at Lake Geneva, Wisconsin, and Yang went to the Institute for Advanced Studies at Princeton University in Princeton, New Jersey. Lee then spent the next year as a research assistant at the University of California at Berkeley before

accepting an appointment at Princeton in 1951, again reuniting with Yang.

Revolutionary theory

Even after Lee left Princeton in 1953 for a post as assistant professor of physics at Columbia University, he continued to work with Yang. The two worked out a schedule that allowed them to continue meeting once a week, either in New York City or in Princeton. These meetings had begun to focus on a subatomic (smaller than an atom) particle known as the K-meson. Discovered only a few years earlier, the K-meson puzzled physicists, because it appeared to be a single particle that decayed in two different ways. The decay patterns were so different that physicists had become convinced that two different forms of the K-meson existed, forms they called the tau-meson and theta-meson.

The single difference between these two particles was that one form was conserving parity and the other form was not. Following a concept long held by physicists, if the properties of a particle and its mirror image are the same, it is said to be “conserving parity.” The problem that Lee and Yang attacked was that all other evidence suggested that the theta- and tau-mesons were one and the same particle. During a three-week period of work in 1956, Lee and Yang solved the puzzle by suggesting that, in some types of reactions, parity is not conserved. The decay of the (one and only) K-meson was such a reaction. They then created a series of experiments by which their theory could be tested.

The basic elements in the Lee-Yang theory were announced in a paper sent to the *Physical Review* in June 1956. Six months later another physicist, Chien-Shiung Wu, carried

out their suggested experiments, first at Columbia and then at the National Bureau of Standards. The Lee-Yang prediction was found to be correct in every respect. Less than a year later, the two friends were awarded the 1957 Nobel Prize in physics for their work.

Career after the Nobel Prize

After a promotion to professor (1956) at Columbia, Lee returned to the Institute for Advanced Studies in 1960. He then was appointed Enrico Fermi Professor of Physics at Columbia in 1963. In 1984 he was made University Professor at Columbia. In 1980 Lee created a program to give talented Chinese physics students the opportunity to earn graduate degrees in American schools, as he had. In 1989 he helped create the China Center of Advanced Science and Technology World Laboratory, and he continues to travel to China every year to encourage scientists there. In 1994 Lee became a member of the Chinese Academy of Sciences. In 2000 the *World Journal* (a Chinese newspaper in North America) included Lee in its list of the "Most Notable 100 North American Chinese of the Century." The Nobel Prize winner continues to work as a professor at Columbia and is involved in a variety of physics research projects.

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VLADIMIR LENIN

Born: April 10, 1870

Ulianovsk, Russia

Died: January 21, 1924

Moscow, Russia

Russian statesman

The Russian statesman Vladimir Lenin was a profoundly influential figure in world history. As the founder of the Bolshevik political party, he was a successful revolutionary leader who presided over Russia's transformation from a country ruled by czars (emperors) to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.), the name of the communist Russian state from 1922 to 1991.

Early years

Vladimir Ilich Lenin was born in Simbirsk (today Ulianovsk), Russia, on April 10, 1870. His real family name was Ulianov, and his father, Ilia Nikolaevich Ulianov, was a high official in the area's educational system. Because Lenin's father had risen into the ranks of the Russian nobility, Lenin grew up in fairly privileged circumstances. Although he would fight as an adult for a revolution by the working lower classes, he did not come from such a hard-working background himself.

Lenin received the typical education given to the sons of the Russian upper class. Nevertheless, as a young man he began to develop radical (extreme) political views in disagreement with the existing Russian form of government. Russia at this time was ruled by emperors known as czars who inherited their positions, and Lenin's shift to radical

views was probably fueled by the execution by hanging of his older brother Alexander in 1887 after Alexander and others had plotted to kill the czar. Lenin graduated from secondary school with high honors and enrolled at Kazan University, but he was expelled after participating in a demonstration. He retired to the family estate but was permitted to continue his studies away from the university. He obtained a law degree in 1891.

In 1893 Lenin moved to St. Petersburg, Russia. By this time he was already a Marxist—an admirer of the German writer Karl Marx (1818–1883). Marx (and his associate Friedrich Engels [1820–1895]) had believed in an international revolution (overthrow of the government) of the poor and lower-class workers (called the proletariat) who would lead the way to a new system of power. Under this new system, Marx argued, property would be owned communally (as a group) and work would be distributed equally. By 1893 Lenin had also become a revolutionary by profession. He wrote controversial papers and articles and tried to organize workers. The St. Petersburg Union for the Struggle for the Liberation of Labor, which Lenin helped create, was one of the seeds that started the Russian Marxist movement.

In 1897 Lenin was arrested, spent some months in jail, and was finally sentenced to three years of exile (forced absence from one's native country or region) in the remote area of Siberia. He was joined there by a fellow Marxist, Nadezhda Konstantinovna Krupskaya (1869–1939), whom he married in 1898. During his Siberian exile he produced a major study of the Russian economy, *The Development of Capitalism in Russia*.

Emigration to Europe

Not long after Lenin was released from Siberia in the summer of 1900, he moved to Europe. He spent most of the next seventeen years there, moving from one country to another frequently. His first step was to join the editorial board of *Iskra* (The Spark), the central newspaper of Russian Marxism at the time. After parting from *Iskra*, he edited a series of papers of his own and contributed to other journals promoting socialism (a version of Marxism). His journalistic activity was closely linked with efforts to organize revolutionary groups, partly because the illegal organizational network within Russia was partly based on the distribution of illegal literature.

Organizational activity, in turn, was linked with the selection and training of people who would work for the cause. For some time Lenin conducted a training school for Russian revolutionaries at Longjumeau, a suburb of Paris, France. Finding funds for the movement and its leaders' activities in Europe was also a problem. Lenin could usually depend on financial support from his mother for personal use, but she could not pay for his political activities.

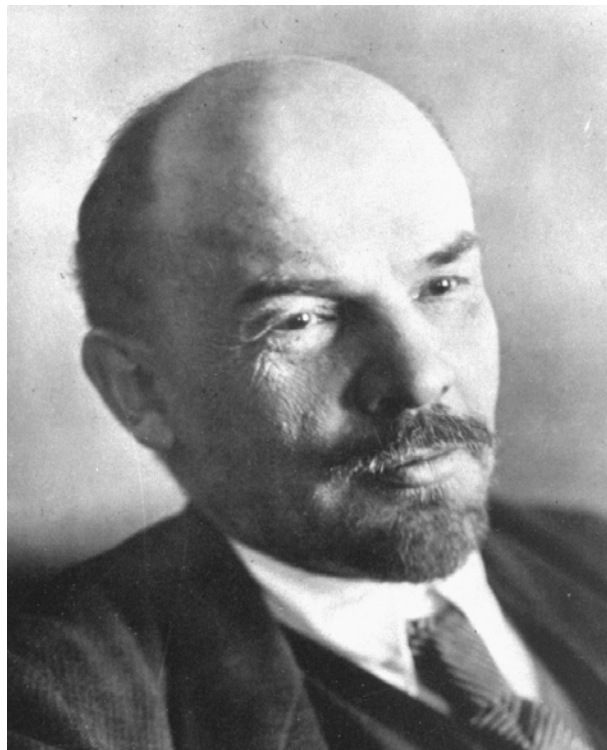
Lenin's ideas

A Marxist movement had developed in Russia during the last decade of the nineteenth century. It was a response to the rapid growth of industry, cities, and the proletariat (a group of lower-class workers, especially in industry). Its first intellectual spokesmen were people who had turned away from relying on the peasants (rural poor people) of the Russian villages and countryside, and they placed their hopes on the proletariat.

They aimed for a revolution that would transform Russia into a democratic republic. Lenin's writings and work focused on the role of the proletariat as promoters of this revolution. However, he also stressed the role of intellectuals (people engaged in thinking) who would provide the movement with the theories that would guide the revolution's progress.

Lenin expressed these ideas in his important book *What's to Be Done?* in 1902. When the leaders of Russian Marxism gathered for the first important party meeting in 1903, these ideas clashed with the idea of a looser, more democratic workers' party that was promoted by Lenin's old friend Iuli Martov (1873–1923). This disagreement over the nature and organization of the party was complicated by many other conflicts, and from its first important gathering Russian Marxism split into two factions (opposing groups). The one led by Lenin called itself the majority faction (bolsheviki, or the Bolsheviks), while the other took the name of minority faction (mensheviki, or the Mensheviks). The Bolsheviks and Mensheviks disagreed not only over how to organize the movement but also over most other political problems.

In 1905 an uprising now known as the Revolution of 1905 occurred in Russia. Widespread revolt against the Russian czar's government spread throughout the country, but was eventually put to an end by the government. This revolt among the Russian people surprised all Russian revolutionary leaders, including the Bolsheviks. Lenin managed to return to Russia only in November, when the defeat of the revolution was practically certain. But he was among the last to give up.



Vladimir Lenin.

For many more months he urged his followers to renew their revolutionary enthusiasm and activities and to prepare for an armed uprising.

Bolshevism and Marxism

Over the next twelve years bolshevism, which had begun as a faction within the Russian Social-Democratic Workers party, gradually emerged as an independent party that had cut its ties with all other Russian Marxists. The process involved long and bitter arguments against Mensheviks as well as against all those who worked to reunite the factions. It involved fights over funds,

struggles for control of newspapers, the development of rival organizations, and meetings of rival groups. Disputes concerned many questions about the goals and strategies of Marxism and the role of national (rather than international) struggles within Marxism.

Since about 1905 the international socialist movement had begun also to discuss the possibility of a major war breaking out among European nations. In 1907 and 1912, members met and condemned such wars in advance, pledging not to support them. Lenin had wanted to go further than that. He had urged active opposition to the war effort and a transformation of any war into a proletarian revolution. When World War I (1914–1918; a conflict involving most European nations, as well as Russia, the United States, and Japan) broke out, most socialist leaders in the countries involved supported the war effort. For Lenin, this was proof that he and the other leaders shared no common aims or views. The break between the two schools of Marxism could not be fixed.

During World War I (1914–18) Lenin lived in Switzerland. He attended several conferences of radical socialists opposed to the war. He read a large amount of literature on the Marxist idea of state government and wrote a first draft for a book on the subject, *The State and Revolution*. He also studied literature dealing with world politics of the time and wrote an important book, *Imperialism: The Highest Stage of Capitalism*, in 1916. By the beginning of 1917 he had fits of depression and wrote to a close friend that he thought he would never see another revolution. This was about a month before the over-

throw of the Russian czar in the winter of 1917, which marked the beginning of the 1917 Russian Revolution.

Lenin in 1917

It took a good deal of negotiation and courage for Lenin and a group of like-minded Russian revolutionaries to travel from Switzerland back to Russia through the enemy country of Germany. The man who returned to Russia in the spring of 1917 was of medium height, quite bald, except for the back of his head, with a reddish beard. The features of his face were striking—slanted eyes that looked piercingly at others, and high cheek-bones under a towering forehead. The rest of his appearance was deceptively ordinary.

Fluent in many languages, Lenin spoke Russian with a slight speech defect but was a powerful public speaker in small groups as well as before large audiences. A tireless worker, he made others work tirelessly. He tried to push those who worked with him to devote every ounce of their energy to the revolutionary task at hand. He was impatient with any other activities, including small talk and discussions of political theories. Indeed, he was suspicious of intellectuals and felt most at home in the company of simple folk. Having been brought up in the tradition of the Russian nobility, Lenin loved hunting, hiking, horseback riding, boating, mushroom hunting, and the outdoor life in general.

Once he had returned to Russia, Lenin worked constantly to use the revolutionary situation that had been created by the fall of the czar and convert it into a proletarian revolution that would bring his own party into power. As a result of his activities, opinions in Russia quickly became more and more

sharply at odds. Moderate forces found themselves less and less able to maintain any control. In the end, by October 1917 power fell into the hands of the Bolsheviks. As a result of the so-called October Revolution, Lenin found himself not only the leader of his party but also the chairman of the Council of People's Commissars (equivalent to prime minister) of the newly proclaimed Russian Socialist Federative Soviet Republic (the basis for the future Union of Soviet Socialist Republics).

Ruler of Russia

During the next few years Lenin was essentially dictator (a ruler with unquestionable authority) of Russia. The major task he faced was establishing this authority for himself and his party in the country. Most of his policies can be understood in this light, even though he angered some elements in the population while satisfying others. Examples of such policies include the government's seizing of land from its owners and redistributing it to the peasants, forming a peace treaty with Germany, and the nationalization (putting under central governmental control) of banks and industry.

From 1918 to 1921 a fierce civil war raged, which the Bolsheviks finally won against seemingly overwhelming odds. During the civil war Lenin tightened his party's dictatorship and eventually eliminated all rival political parties. Lenin had to create an entirely new political system with the help of inexperienced people. He was also heading a failing economy and had to create desperate means for putting people to work. He also created the Third (Communist) International, an association of parties that promoted the spread of the revolution to other

countries and that enforced the Soviet system as a model for this movement. Meanwhile he had to cope with conflict and criticism from his own party colleagues.

When the civil war had been won and the regime firmly established, the economy was ruined, and much of the population was bitterly opposed to the regime. At this point Lenin reversed many of his policies and instituted a reform called the New Economic Policy. It was a temporary retreat from the goal of establishing socialism at once. Instead, the stress of the party's policies would be on economic rebuilding and on the education of a peasant population for life in the twentieth century. In the long run, Lenin hoped both these policies would make the benefits of socialism obvious to all, so the country would gradually grow into socialism.

On May 26, 1922, Lenin suffered a serious stroke (a loss of consciousness due to the rupture or blockage of an artery in the brain). After recovering from this first stroke, he suffered a second on December 16. He was so seriously ill that he could participate in political matters only occasionally. He moved to a country home at Gorki, Russia, near Moscow, where he died on January 21, 1924.

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LEONARDO DA VINCI

Born: April 15, 1452

Vinci, Italy

Died: May 2, 1519

Amboise, France

Italian artist, painter, sculptor, architect, engineer, and scientist

Leonardo da Vinci was an Italian painter, sculptor, architect, engineer, and scientist. He was one of the greatest minds of the Italian Renaissance, and his influence on painting was enormous to the following generations.

Early years

Leonardo da Vinci was born on April 15, 1452, near the village of Vinci about 25 miles west of Florence. He was the illegitimate (born to unmarried parents) son of Ser Piero da Vinci, a prominent notary (a public official who certifies legal documents) of Florence, and a local woman, Caterina. Not much is known about Leonardo's childhood except that when he was fifteen, his father apprenticed him to Andrea del Verrocchio (1435–1488), the leading artist of Florence and the early Renaissance.

Verrocchio, a sculptor, painter, and goldsmith, was a remarkable craftsman. He had great concern for the quality of execution in expressing the vitality of the human figure. These elements were important in the formation of Leonardo's artistic style. It should be noted that much in Leonardo's approach to art originated from using tradition, rather than rebelling against it.

Assistant in Verrocchio's workshop

Leonardo, after completing his apprenticeship, stayed on as an assistant in Verrocchio's shop. His earliest known painting is in Verrocchio's *Baptism of Christ* (c. 1475). Leonardo executed one of the two angels as well as the distant landscape, and he added the final touches to the figure of Christ, determining the texture of the flesh.

Collaboration on a major project by a master and his assistant was standard procedure in the Italian Renaissance. What is special is that Leonardo's work is not a slightly less skilled version of Verrocchio's manner of painting, but an original approach which changed the surface effects from hard to soft, making the edges less cutting, and increasing the slight changes of light and shade.

Independent master in Florence

About 1478 Leonardo set up his own studio. In 1481 he received a major church commission for an altarpiece, the *Adoration of the Magi*. In this unfinished painting, Leonardo's new approach is far more developed. A crowd of spectators, with varied faces, looks at the main group of the Virgin and Child. There is a strong sense of continuing movement. Leonardo placed the Virgin and Child in the center. Traditionally in paintings of this theme they had appeared at one side of the picture, approached by the kings from the other side.

Earlier Renaissance artists had applied the rules of linear perspective, by which objects appear smaller in proportion as they are farther away from the eye of the spectator. Leonardo joined this principle to two others: perspective of clarity (distant objects are less distinct) and

perspective of color (distant objects are more muted in color). He wrote about both of these principles in his notebooks.

The *Magi* altarpiece was left unfinished because Leonardo left Florence in 1482 to accept the post of court artist to the Duke of Milan. In leaving, Leonardo followed a trend set by masters of the older generation who went to Venice and Rome to execute commissions larger than any available in their native Florence.

Milan (1482–1499)

Leonardo presented himself to the Duke of Milan as skilled in many crafts, but particularly in military engineering. He also produced remarkable machinery for stage set-ups. Both activities point to his intense interest in the laws of motion and propulsion (the movement or push forward), a further aspect of his interest in things and their workings.

Leonardo's first Milanese painting is the altarpiece *Virgin of the Rocks*. It makes use of a respected tradition in which the Holy Family is shown in a cave. This setting becomes a vehicle for Leonardo's interests in representing nature in dimmed light, which blends together the outlines of separate objects. He once commented that artists should practice drawing at dusk in courtyards with walls painted black.

The other surviving painting of Leonardo's Milanese years is the *Last Supper* (1495–1497). Instead of using fresco (painting on fresh plaster with special water color paints), the traditional medium for this theme, Leonardo experimented with an oil-based medium, because painting in true fresco makes areas of color appear quite distinct. Unfortunately, his experiment was



Leonardo da Vinci.

unsuccessful. The paint did not stick well to the wall, and within fifty years the scene was reduced to a confused series of spots. What exists today is largely a later reconstruction.

When the Duke of Milan was overthrown by the French invasion in 1499, Leonardo left Milan. He visited Venice briefly, where the Senate consulted him on military projects, and traveled to Mantua.

Florence (1500–1506)

In 1500 Leonardo returned to Florence, where he was received as a great man. Florentine painters of the generation immediately following Leonardo were excited by his

modern methods, with which they were familiar through the unfinished *Adoration of the Magi*. Leonardo had a powerful effect on the younger group of artists.

Leonardo even served a term as military engineer for Cesare Borgia in 1502, and he completed more projects during his time in Florence than in any other period of his life. In his works of these years, the concentration is mostly on portraying human vitality, as in the *Mona Lisa*. It is a portrait of a Florentine citizen's young third wife, whose smile is called mysterious because it is in the process of either appearing or disappearing.

Leonardo's great project (begun 1503) was a cavalry battle scene that the city commissioned to adorn the newly built Council Hall of the Palazzo Vecchio. The work is only known today through some rapid rough sketches of the groups of horsemen, careful drawings of single heads of men, and copies of the entire composition. Leonardo began to paint the scene but was called back to Milan before the work was completed. A short time thereafter, the room was remodeled and the fragment was destroyed.

Milan (1506–1513)

Leonardo was called to Milan in 1506 by the French governor in charge to work on an equestrian statue (a sculpture of a leader riding a horse) project, but he produced no new paintings. Instead he turned more and more to scientific observation. Most of Leonardo's scientific concerns were fairly direct extensions of his interests as a painter, and his research in anatomy (the structure of a living organism) was the most fully developed. Early Renaissance painters had attempted to render the human anatomy with accuracy. Leonardo

went far beyond any of them, producing the earliest anatomical drawings still followed today.

Leonardo filled notebooks with data and drawings that reveal his other scientific interests: firearms, the action of water, the flight of birds (leading to designs for human flight), the growth of plants, and geology (the study of earth and its history). Leonardo's interests were not universal, however. Theology (the study of religion), history, and literature did not appeal to him. All his interests were concerned with the processes of action, movement, pressure, and growth. It has been said that his drawings of the human body are less about how bodies are and more about how they work.

Last years

In 1513 Leonardo went to Rome, where he remained until 1516. He was much honored, but he was relatively inactive and remarkably aloof (apart) from its rich social and artistic life. He continued to fill his notebooks with scientific entries.

The French king, Francis I (1494–1547), invited Leonardo to his court at Fontainebleau, gave him the title of first painter, architect, and mechanic to the king, and provided him with a country house at Cloux. Leonardo was revered for his knowledge more than for any work he produced in France. He died on May 2, 1519, at Cloux.

Influence

Leonardo's influence on younger artists of Milan and Florence was enormous. Among these were Filippino Lippi (1457–1504) and Andrea del Sarto (1486–1531) who were able to absorb and transmit his message rather

than merely copy the unimportant aspects of his style.

On a more significant level, Leonardo influenced the two greatest young artists to come in contact with him. Raphael (1483–1520) came to Florence in 1504 at the age of twenty-one, and quickly revealed Leonardo's influence in his portraits and Madonnas. Also, about 1503, Michelangelo (1475–1564) changed from a sculptor of merely grand scale to one whose figures are charged with energy. This may be seen in the contrast between Michelangelo's early *David* and his later *St. Matthew*.

From this time on Leonardo influenced, directly or indirectly, all painting. However, most of Leonardo's scientific observations remained unproven until the same questions were again investigated in later centuries.

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C. S. LEWIS

Born: November 29, 1898

Belfast, Ireland

Died: November 24, 1963

Oxford, England

Irish writer, novelist, and essayist

The Irish novelist and essayist C. S. Lewis was best known for his essays on literature and his explanations of Christian teachings.

Early life and education

On November 29, 1898, Clive Staples Lewis was born in Belfast, Ireland. He was the son of A. J. Lewis, a lawyer, and Flora August Hamilton Lewis, a mathematician (expert in mathematics), whose father was a minister. At four years old he told his parents that he wanted to be called "Jack" Lewis, and his family and friends referred to him that way for the rest of his life. Jack's best friend as a boy was his older brother Warren. They did everything together and even created their own made-up country, Boxen, going so far as to create many individual characters and a four-hundred-year history of the country.

Lewis's mother, who had tutored him in French and Latin, died when he was ten years old. After spending a year in studies at Malvern College, a boarding school in England, he continued his education privately under a tutor named W. T. Kirkpatrick, former headmaster (principal) of Lurgan College. During World War I (1914–18), which began as a conflict between Austria-Hungary and Serbia but eventually involved much of Europe, Lewis served as a second lieutenant in the English army, interrupting his career as a scholar that he had begun in 1918 at University College, Oxford. Wounded in the war, he returned to Oxford, where he was appointed lecturer at University College in 1924. In 1925 he was appointed fellow (performing advanced study or research) and tutor at Magdalen College, England, where he gave lectures on English literature.



C. S. Lewis.

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Published works

In 1926 Lewis's first publication, *Dymer*, appeared under the pseudonym (fake writing name) Clive Hamilton. *Dymer* revealed Lewis's gift for satire (a work of literature that makes fun of human vice or foolishness). *The Pilgrims' Regress*, an allegory (an expression of truths about human existence using symbols) published in 1933, presented an apology for Christianity. It was not until the appearance of his second allegorical work, *The Allegory of Love* (1936), however, that Lewis was honored with the coveted Hawthornden prize.

The Screwtape Letters (1942), for which Lewis is perhaps best known, is a satire in

which the devil, here known as Screwtape, writes letters teaching his young nephew, Wormwood, how to tempt humans to sin. Lewis published seven religious allegories for children titled *Chronicles of Narnia* (1955). He also published several scholarly works on literature, including *English Literature in the 16th Century* (1954) and *Experiment in Criticism* (1961).

Although Lewis went on to publish several works involving religion, he had lost interest in it early in life and only later "converted" to Christianity, joining the Anglican Church. His autobiography (the story of his own life), *Surprised by Joy: The Shape of My Early Life*, fails to explain what happened in his childhood. His headmaster in boarding school, a minister who urged him to "think" by hitting him, may have contributed to this change.

Later years

Lewis went on to become a professor of English at Cambridge University, England, in 1954. Widely read as an adult, his knowledge of literature made him much sought after for his company and conversation. Lewis thoroughly enjoyed sitting up into the late hours in college rooms talking about literature, poetry, and religion.

In 1956, rather late in life, Lewis married Joy Davidman Gresham, the daughter of a New York Jewish couple. She was a graduate of Hunter College and had previously been married twice. When her first husband suffered a heart attack, she turned to prayer. Reading the writings of Lewis, she began attending church. Later, led by his writings to Lewis himself, she divorced her second husband, Williams Gresham, and married Lewis.

She died some three years before her husband. C. S. Lewis died at his home in Headington, Oxford, England, on November 24, 1963. A major collection of his works is held by Wheaton College in Illinois.

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CARL LEWIS

Born: July 1, 1961

Birmingham, Alabama

African American track and field athlete

One of track and field's greatest performers, Carl Lewis in 1984 became the first African American athlete since Jesse Owens (1913–1980) in 1936 to win four gold medals in Olympic competition. He won nine gold medals in four straight Olympics.

A lifetime of dedication

Born on July 1, 1961, in Birmingham, Alabama, Frederick Carlton Lewis is the son of two star athletes who attended Tuskegee Institute. His father, Bill, ran track and played football; his mother, Evelyn, was a world-class hurdler (a runner who jumps over a series of hurdles) who represented the United States at the 1951 Pan-American Games. By the time Carl, the third of four children, was born, his parents were coaching young athletes in track and field events.

When Carl was still young, his family moved to Willingboro, New Jersey. There his parents worked as high school teachers and founded the Willingboro Track Club. Lewis was not as talented as his brothers and sister, and his parents encouraged him to pursue music lessons instead. He kept working and practicing the long jump in his back yard, determined to improve. Small and skinny, Lewis competed in track meets, losing far more than he won. Still, his dedication and confidence caught the eye of Jesse Owens himself at a meet in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Owens urged other children to follow the example of the “spunky little guy.” When he graduated from Willingboro High School in 1979, Lewis was the top-ranked high school track athlete in the country.

Continues to improve

In 1979 Lewis entered the University of Houston (Texas) on an athletic scholarship. He worked with coach Tom Tellez, who suggested improvements in Lewis's style of jumping. After just one year of college Lewis qualified for the 1980 Olympic team, only to see opportunity pass him by when former President Jimmy Carter (1924–) cancelled



Carl Lewis.

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the United States' participation in the Games in protest of the Soviet Union's invasion of Afghanistan. Lewis kept his top national ranking in the long jump and the 100-meter dash at the 1981 National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) indoor championships. He was the first athlete to win two events at an NCAA championship.

In 1982 Lewis left the University of Houston to work at the Santa Monica Track Club in California. Coach Tellez continued to work closely with him. By 1983 Lewis had become a winner in four categories: long jump, 100-meter run, 200-meter run, and 400-meter relay. He won three gold medals at

the track and field world championships in Helsinki, Finland, in 1983. During the early months of 1984 he set an indoor world record in the long jump. It appeared Lewis would return from the twenty-third Olympics covered with gold medals.

Backs up predictions

Lewis's announcement that he would win four events in Los Angeles, California, in the 1984 Summer Olympics was viewed by many as arrogant, but he backed up his talk. He won the 100-meter sprint with a time of 9.99 seconds. His long jump effort of twenty-eight feet earned him a second gold. For his third, Lewis set an Olympic record with a 19.8-second run in the 200-meter race. Finally, he led the 400-meter relay team to an Olympic record victory at 37.83 seconds. Rather than being praised, Lewis was mocked by writers as "King Carl" for his brash predictions and for showing up late to press conferences. An endorsement contract (agreement to promote a company's products in return for money) with Nike was cancelled, and Lewis received no others in the United States, although in Europe and Japan he became a hero. Lewis continued to participate in indoor and outdoor track meets.

In 1985 Canadian sprinter Ben Johnson (1961–) arrived on the scene, and he began to beat Lewis regularly in the 100-meter sprint. At the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul, South Korea, Lewis ran second to Johnson, who won the 100-meter event in record time. Lewis was awarded the gold medal soon afterward when Johnson was found to have used steroids (illegal substances that improve athletic performance). Lewis earned a second gold in Seoul for the long jump, but his continued success did

little to improve his popularity. Worse, Lewis himself was charged with steroid use by a former opponent. Lewis denied the charges and sued the magazine in which they were published; he also agreed to submit to drug tests after races. Lewis has never been linked to drug use by anything but rumor.

Finally accepted

By 1992 Lewis had won eight world championship gold medals and had owned the long jump for ten years. Age began to take its toll on him, however. He watched Mike Powell break Bob Beamon's outdoor long jump world record at the 1991 world championships in Tokyo, Japan. Lewis made four personal best jumps at the same meet but still could not beat Powell. At the 1992 Olympic trials, Lewis failed to make the cut for the 100-meter and 200-meter sprints. He did qualify for the long jump and the 400-meter relay, and a week later he discovered that he had been suffering from a sinus (a cavity in the skull connected to the nostrils) infection.

Lewis experienced something at the 1992 Olympic trials that he had never received—total acceptance from an American crowd. He was given a standing ovation in New Orleans, Louisiana, as his second-place finish in the long jump qualified him for an Olympic berth. The admiration of fans came showering down in Barcelona, Spain, in 1992, when Lewis beat Powell in the long jump to earn his seventh gold medal and then anchored the 400-meter relay for his eighth.

One more time

Following the 1992 Olympics, Lewis's performance began to decline, and by 1995 he was being beaten regularly by younger

athletes. Still, Lewis participated in the 1996 Olympic trials and won a chance to compete in the long jump at the games in Atlanta, Georgia. He easily won his fourth straight gold in the event. With endorsement contracts from Panasonic, among others, and large personal appearance fees, he became a wealthy man and considered running for political office in Houston, Texas.

In 1999 Lewis was named one of the century's greatest athletes at the *Sports Illustrated* 20th Century Sports Awards ceremony. In 2000 he said he still felt he could compete at the Olympic trials but would not do so until the problem of athletes using drugs was addressed. He still attended the games in Sydney, Australia, participating in a ceremony to honor the McDonald's Olympic Achievers, young people from around the world chosen for their success in schoolwork, athletics, and community service. In December 2001 Lewis was elected to the National Track and Field Hall of Fame. He also tried acting, appearing in the 2002 television movie *Atomic Twister*.

Eight of Lewis's Olympic gold medals are still in his possession. The ninth—his first, for the 100-meter sprint—was buried with his father Bill in May of 1988. "My father was most proud of the 100," Lewis revealed in the *Philadelphia Daily News*. "More than anything, he wanted me to win that medal. . . . Now he has it and he'll always have it."

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SINCLAIR LEWIS

Born: February 7, 1885

Sauk Centre, Minnesota

Died: January 10, 1951

Rome, Italy

American writer

Although Sinclair Lewis was one of the most famous American writers of the 1920s, today his popular, mildly satirical (poking fun at human folly) novels are valued mainly for their descriptions of social institutions and relationships of that time.

Early life

Harry Sinclair Lewis was born in Sauk Centre, Minnesota, on February 7, 1885, the third son of Edwin J. Lewis and Emma Kermott Lewis. His father, grandfather, and older brother were all small-town doctors. Lewis was a lonely, awkward boy who liked to read. He began writing while in high school, and some of his articles appeared in Sauk Centre newspapers. After high school Lewis left Minnesota to study at Yale University in Connecticut, interrupting his education in 1907 to work briefly at Helicon Hall, a New Jersey socialist colony (a group of people living and working together as equals for the benefit of all) set up by the writer Upton Sinclair

(1878–1968). After his graduation in 1908, Lewis spent several years doing newspaper and editorial work in various parts of the United States. His first four novels were all unsuccessful.

In 1920 Lewis achieved instant worldwide recognition with the publication of *Main Street*, the story of a gifted young girl married to a dull, considerably older village doctor who tries to bring culture and imagination to empty, small-town life. Next Lewis focused on the American businessman in *Babbitt* (1922), perhaps his major work. Lewis purposely wrote in a fantastic style, ignoring formal plot development or structure. The creation of George F. Babbitt, an intellectually empty, immature man of weak morals who nevertheless remains a lovable comic figure, is Lewis's greatest accomplishment. One critic remarked, "If Babbitt could write, he would write like Sinclair Lewis."

Later novels and the Nobel Prize

Lewis's next popular novel, *Arrowsmith* (1925), returned to the form of *Main Street* to portray a young doctor's battle to maintain his dignity in a petty, dishonest world. Despite its often simplistic look at science as a means of saving one's soul, *Arrowsmith* was offered the Pulitzer Prize. Lewis, however, immediately refused the honor because the terms of the award required that it be given not for a work of value, but for a work that presents "the wholesome atmosphere of American Life."

Elmer Gantry (1927), an extreme assault on religious hypocrisy (the false expression of the appearance of goodness), seems more concerned with the main character's morals than with the failings of organized religion.

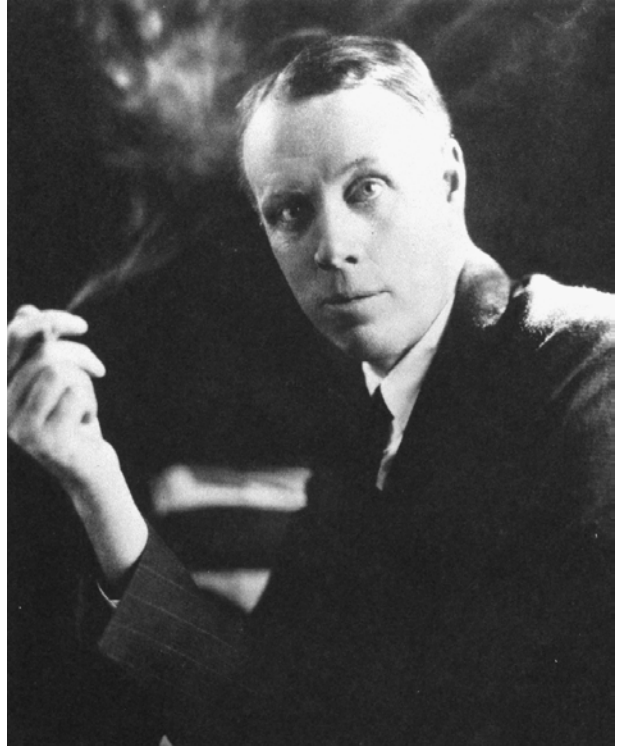
Dodsworth (1929), a sympathetic description of a wealthy, retired manufacturer seeking happiness in Europe, is more successful. Here Lewis makes little effort to hide his liking of, and even admiration for, the values described earlier in *Babbitt*. In 1930 Sinclair Lewis became the first American to win the Nobel Prize for Literature, but this honor brought him little personal happiness.

Lewis produced a great deal of writing in the following years, but none of these works were as successful as his earlier efforts. *Ann Vickers* (1933) traces the career of an unstable woman who starts as a social worker and ends as the mistress of a politician; *Cass Timberlane* (1945) deals with an unhappy marriage between a middle-aged judge and his loving wife; *Kingsblood Royal* (1947) takes on the subject of racial prejudice; and *The God-Seeker* (1949) tells the story of a New England missionary's attempts to convert the Native American Indians of Minnesota in the 1840s.

Final years

Lewis spent his last years traveling throughout Europe, unable to find publishers for his work and aware that his impact on American literature was far less than his early admirers had led him to believe. Lewis was overshadowed by other American writers, including Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961) and William Faulkner (1897–1962), who had yet to appear when Lewis first attracted attention. Later critics also felt that the Nobel Prize Lewis had won in 1930 should have gone to the stronger novelist Theodore Dreiser (1871–1945) instead.

Married and divorced twice, in Lewis's last years he retreated almost completely from other people. Increasingly self-con-



Sinclair Lewis.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

scious about his physical decline, he refused to be seen even by his few friends. He died on January 10, 1951, of a heart attack in a small-town clinic just outside of Rome, Italy. Although Lewis is not considered to have been a great writer, his place in the history of American literature is secure.

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ROY LICHTENSTEIN

Born: October 27, 1923

New York, New York

Died: September 29, 1997

New York, New York

American artist, painter, sculptor, and printmaker

Roy Lichtenstein, American painter, sculptor, and printmaker, startled the art world in 1962 by exhibiting paintings based on comic book cartoons.

Early life

Roy Lichtenstein was born in New York City on October 27, 1923, the son of Milton and Beatrice Werner Lichtenstein. His father owned a real estate firm. Lichtenstein studied with artist Reginald Marsh (1898–1954) at the Art Students League in 1939. After graduating from Benjamin Franklin High School in New York City, he entered Ohio State University. However, in 1943 his education was interrupted by three years of army service, during which he drew up maps for planned troop movements across Germany during World War II (1939–45; a war in which Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States fought against Germany, Japan,

and Italy). Lichtenstein received his bachelor of fine arts degree from Ohio State University in 1946 and a master of fine arts degree in 1949. He taught at Ohio State until 1951, then went to Cleveland, Ohio, to work. In 1957 he started teaching at Oswego State College in New York; in 1960 he moved to Rutgers University in New Jersey. Three years later he gave up teaching to paint full-time.

Early works

From 1951 to about 1957 Lichtenstein's paintings dealt with themes of the American West—cowboys, Native Americans, and the like—in a style similar to that of modern European painters. Next he began hiding images of comic strip figures (such as Mickey Mouse, Donald Duck, and Bugs Bunny) in his paintings. By 1961 he had created the images for which he became known. These included advertisement illustrations—common objects such as string, golf balls, kitchen curtains, slices of pie, or a hot dogs. He also used other artists' works to create new pieces, such as *Woman with Flowered Hat* (1963), based on a reproduction of a work by Pablo Picasso (1881–1973). He also created versions of paintings by Piet Mondrian (1872–1944), Gilbert Stuart's (1755–1828) portrait of George Washington (1732–1799), and Claude Monet's (1840–1926) haystacks.

Lichtenstein was best known for his paintings based on comic strips, with their themes of passion, romance, science fiction, violence, and war. In these paintings, Lichtenstein uses the commercial art methods: projectors magnify spray-gun stencils, creating dots to make the pictures look like newspaper cartoons seen through a magnifying glass. In the late 1960s he turned to design

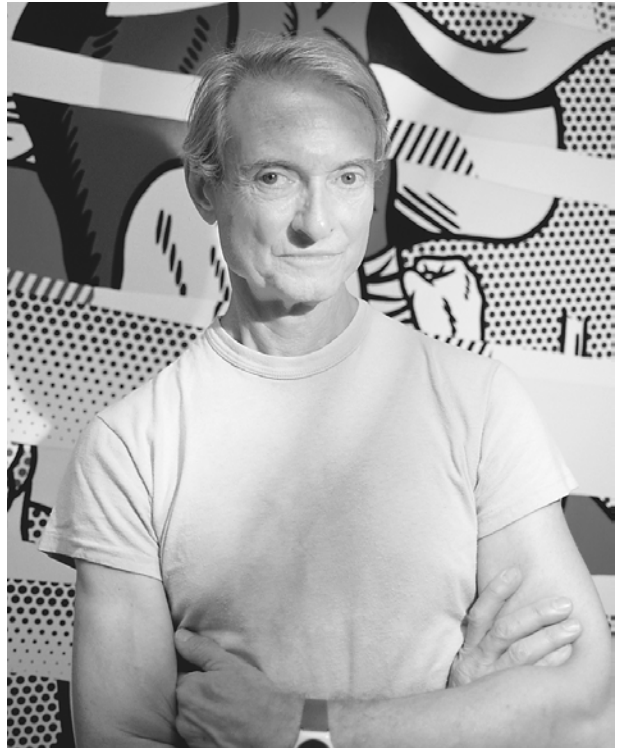
elements and the commercial art of the 1930s, as if to explore the history of pop art (a twentieth-century art movement that uses everyday items). In 1966 his work was included in the Venice (Italy) Biennale art show. In 1969 New York's Guggenheim Museum gave a large exhibition of his work.

Tries different styles

The 1970s saw Lichtenstein continuing to experiment with new styles. His "mirror" paintings consist of sphere-shaped canvases with areas of color and dots. One of these, *Self-Portrait* (1978), is similar to the work of artist René Magritte (1898–1967) in its playful placement of a mirror where a human head should be. Lichtenstein also created a series of still lifes (paintings that show inanimate objects) in different styles during the 1970s. In the 1980s and 1990s, Lichtenstein began to mix and match styles. Often his works relied on optical (relating to vision) tricks, drawing his viewers into a debate over the nature of "reality." The works were always marked by Lichtenstein's trademark sense of humor and the absurd.

Lichtenstein's long career and large body of work brought him appreciation as one of America's greatest living artists. In 1994 he designed a painting for the hull of the United States entry in the America's Cup yacht race. A series of sea-themed works followed. In 1995 the Los Angeles County Museum of Art launched a traveling exhibition, "The Prints of Roy Lichtenstein," which covered more than twenty years of his work in this medium.

In a 1996 exhibition at New York City's Leo Castelli gallery, Lichtenstein unveiled a series of paintings, "Landscapes in the Chi-



Roy Lichtenstein.

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nese Style," which consisted of delicate "impressions" of traditional Chinese landscape paintings. The series was praised for its restraint (control), as common Lichtenstein elements, such as the use of dots to represent mass, were used to support the compositions rather than to declare an individual style. Lichtenstein died on September 29, 1997, in New York City, at the age of seventy-three.

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MAYA LIN

Born: October 5, 1959

Athens, Ohio

Asian American architect and sculptor

Maya Lin is an American architect whose two most important works in the 1980s were the Vietnam Veterans' Memorial in Washington, D.C., and the Civil Rights Memorial in Montgomery, Alabama.

Family and childhood

Maya Ying Lin was born on October 5, 1959, in Athens, Ohio, a manufacturing and agricultural town seventy-five miles southeast of Columbus. Athens is also the home of Ohio University, where Lin's mother, Julia Chang Lin, a poet, was a literature professor. Her late father, Henry Huan Lin, was a ceramicist (a person with expertise in ceramics). The couple came to America from China in the 1940s, leaving behind a prominent family that had included a well-known lawyer and an architect. Lin's family in America includes her mother and an older brother, Tan, who, is a poet like his mother.

During her childhood, Maya Lin found it easy to keep herself entertained, whether by reading or by building miniature towns. Maya loved to hike and bird watch as a child.

She also enjoyed reading and working in her father's ceramics studio. From an early age she excelled in mathematics, which led her toward a career in architecture. While in high school Lin took college level courses and worked at McDonalds. She considered herself a typical mid-westerner, in that she grew up with little sense of ethnic identity. She admits, however, to having been somewhat "nerdy," since she never dated nor wore make-up and found it enjoyable to be constantly thinking and solving problems.

Vietnam Veterans' Memorial

After graduating from high school, Lin enrolled at Yale University in New Haven, Connecticut, to study architecture. Her best-known work, the design for the Vietnam Veterans' Memorial in Washington, D.C., grew out of a class project during her senior year. In 1981 her entry was chosen out of a field of 1,421 unlabelled submissions in a design competition that was open to all Americans, not just professional architects. Lin was just twenty-one years old at the time.

In keeping with the competition criteria of sensitivity to the nearby Lincoln Memorial and Washington Monument, the inclusion of the names of all the dead and missing of the war, and the avoidance of political statements about the war, Lin's design was simple. She proposed two two-hundred-foot-long polished black granite walls, which dipped ten feet below grade to meet at an obtuse (greater than 90 degrees) angle of 130 degrees. The two arms were to point towards the Lincoln Memorial and Washington Monument, and they were to be inscribed with the names of the approximately fifty-eight thousand men and women killed or missing in Vietnam.

These names were to be listed chronologically, according to the dates killed or reported missing, instead of alphabetically, so that they would read, in Lin's words, "like an epic Greek poem." The memorial was dedicated in November of 1982.

After the Vietnam Memorial project, Lin returned to Yale for a master's degree. Her later projects included designs for a Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, stage set; a corporate logo; an outdoor gathering place at Juniata College in Huntington, Pennsylvania; a park near the Charlotte, North Carolina, coliseum; and a ceiling for the Long Island Railroad section of Pennsylvania Station. In addition, her lead and glass sculptures have been exhibited at New York's Sidney Janis Gallery.

Civil Rights Memorial

Maya Lin's second nationally recognized project was the design of the Civil Rights Memorial in Montgomery, Alabama, commissioned by the Southern Poverty Law Center. Lin's conception of the memorial grew out of her admiration of a line in Martin Luther King's (1929–1968) "I have a dream" speech, which proclaims that the struggle for civil rights (the basic rights given to U.S. citizens of all races) will not be complete "until justice rolls down like water and righteousness like a mighty stream." Water, along with this key phrase from the King years, became her theme. King's words stand out boldly on a convex (curved or bowed out), water-covered wall, which overlooks an inverted cone-shaped table with an off-center base. The surface of this table is inscribed with the names of forty people who died in the struggle for civil rights between 1955 and 1968, as well as with landmark events of the period. This element is



Maya Lin.

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also bathed in a film of moving water, which serves to involve the viewer sensually through sound, touch, and the sight of his or her reflection, while the words engage the intellect.

The two geometric elements of the Civil Rights Memorial are not completely without symbolic meaning. Lin has noted that the asymmetrical, or uneven, cone-shaped table looks different from every angle, a quality which implies equality without sameness—an appropriate view in a memorial to civil rights. Lin says this memorial will be her last, and notes that she began and ended the 1980s with memorial projects. She feels fortunate and satisfied to have had the opportunity.

In 1993 Lin created a sculptural landscape work called Groundswell at Ohio State University—a three level garden of crushed green glass. The glass used in the effort reveal Lin's environmentalist nature. Lin remains an active sculptor and architect. In 1997 she began work on a twenty-thousand-square-foot recycling plant. Lin currently lives in Vermont. She stays out of the public eye as much as possible. Still, so much of her work is so public and so creative that publicity is hard to avoid. Maya Lin has published several books and is currently working on different architectural and sculptural projects.

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ABRAHAM LINCOLN

Born: February 12, 1809

Hodgenville, Kentucky

Died: April 14, 1865

Washington, D.C.

American president

The sixteenth president of the United States and president during the Civil War (1861–1865), Abraham Lincoln will forever be remembered by his inspirational rise to fame, his efforts to rid the country of slavery, and his ability to hold together a divided nation. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation, Gettysburg Address, and two outstanding inaugural addresses are widely regarded as some of the greatest speeches ever delivered by an American politician.

Starting life in a log cabin

Abraham Lincoln was born to Thomas and Nancy Lincoln on February 12, 1809, in a log cabin on a farm in Hardin County, Kentucky. Two years later the family moved to a farm on Knob Creek. There, when there was no immediate work to be done, Abraham walked two miles to the schoolhouse, where he learned the basics of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

When Abraham was seven, his father sold his lands and moved the family into the rugged wilderness of Indiana across the Ohio River. After spending a winter in a crude shack, the Lincolns began building a better home and clearing the land for planting. They were making progress when, in the summer of 1818, a terrible disease known as milk sickness struck the region. First it took the lives of Mrs. Lincoln's uncle and aunt, and then Nancy Hanks Lincoln herself died. Without Mrs. Lincoln the household began to fall apart, and much of the workload fell to Abraham and his sister.

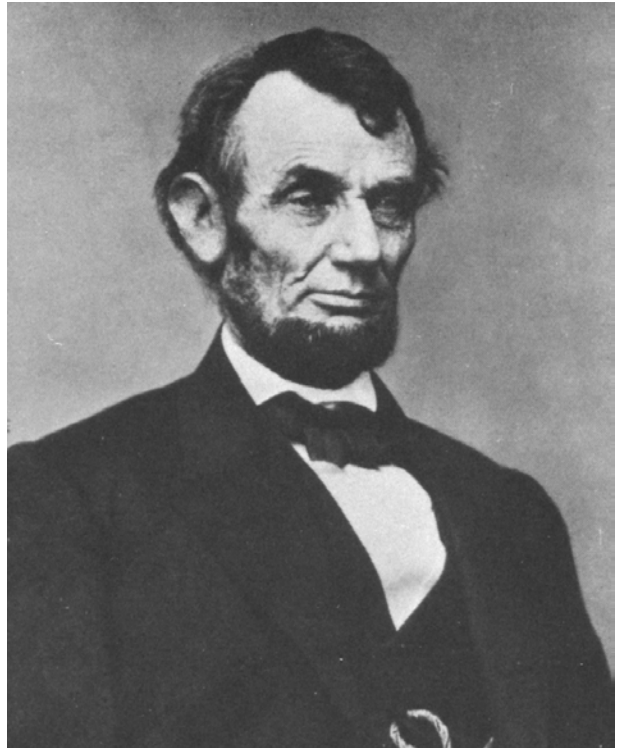
The next winter Abraham's father returned to Kentucky and brought back a second wife, Sarah Bush Johnson, a widow

with three children. As time passed, the region where the Lincolns lived grew in population. Lincoln himself grew tall and strong, and his father often hired him out to work for neighbors. Meanwhile, Lincoln's father had again moved his family to a new home in Illinois, where he built a cabin on the Sangamon River. At the end of the first summer in Illinois, disease swept through the region and put the Lincolns on the move once again. This time it was to Coles County. Abraham, who was now a grown man, did not go along. Instead he moved to the growing town of New Salem, where he was placed in charge of a mill and store.

Entering public life

Life in New Salem was a turning point for Lincoln, and the great man of history began to emerge. To the store came people of all kinds to talk and trade and to enjoy the stories told by this unique and popular man. The members of the New Salem Debating Society welcomed him, and Lincoln began to develop his skills as a passionate and persuasive speaker. When the Black Hawk War (1832) erupted between the United States and hostile Native Americans, the volunteers of the region quickly elected Lincoln to be their captain.

After the war he announced himself as a candidate for the Illinois legislature. He was not elected, but he did receive 277 of the 300 votes cast in the New Salem precinct. In 1834, after another attempt, Lincoln was finally elected to the state legislature. Lincoln's campaign skills greatly impressed John Todd Stuart (1807–1885), a leader of the Whigs, one of two major political parties in the country at the time. Stuart was also an



Abraham Lincoln.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

outstanding lawyer in Springfield, Illinois, and soon took Lincoln under his care and inspired him to begin the study of law.

Lincoln served four straight terms in the legislature and soon emerged as a party leader. Meanwhile, he mastered the law books he could buy or borrow. In September 1836 Lincoln began practicing law and played an important part in having the Illinois state capital moved from Vandalia to Springfield. In 1837 Lincoln himself moved to Springfield to become Stuart's law partner. He did not, however, forget politics. In 1846 Lincoln was elected to the U.S. Congress. During these years Lincoln had become

engaged to Mary Todd (1818–1882), a cultured and well-educated Kentucky woman. They were married on November 2, 1842.

First failure

When Congress met in December 1847, Lincoln expressed his disapproval with the Mexican War (1846–48), in which American and Mexican forces clashed over land in the Southwest. These views, together with his wish to abolish, or end, slavery in the District of Columbia, brought sharp criticism from the people back in Illinois. They believed Lincoln was “not a patriot” and had not correctly represented his state in Congress.

Although the Whigs won the presidency in 1848, Lincoln could not even control the support in his own district. His political career seemed to be coming to a close just as it was beginning. His only reward for party service was an offer of the governorship of far-off Oregon, which he refused. Lincoln then returned to Illinois and resumed practicing law.

War on the horizon

During the next twelve years, while Lincoln rebuilt his legal career, the nation was becoming divided. While victory in the Mexican War added vast western territory to the United States, then came the issue of slavery in those new territories. To Southerners, the issue involved the security and rights of slavery everywhere. To Northerners, it was a matter of morals and justice. A national crisis soon developed. Only the efforts of Senators Henry Clay (1777–1852) and Daniel Webster (1782–1852) brought about the Compromise of 1850. With the compromise, a temporary truce was reached between the states favoring slavery and those opposed to it. The

basic issues, however, were not eliminated. Four years later the struggle was reopened.

Lincoln’s passionate opposition to slavery was enough to draw him back into the world of politics. He had always viewed slavery as a “moral, social and political wrong” and looked forward to its eventual abolition. Although willing to let it alone for the present in the states where it existed, he would not see it extended one inch.

At the same time, Illinois Senator Stephen A. Douglas (1813–1861) drafted the Kansas-Nebraska Act, which would leave the decision of slavery up to the new territories. Lincoln thought the bill ignored the growing Northern determination to rid the nation of slavery. Soon, in opposition to the expansion of slavery, the Republican party was born. When Douglas returned to Illinois to defend his position, Lincoln seized every opportunity to point out the weakness in it.

Republican leader

Lincoln’s failure to receive the nomination as senator in 1855 convinced him that the Whig party was dead. By summer 1856 he became a member of the new Republicans. Lincoln quickly emerged as the outstanding leader of the new party. At the party’s first national convention in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, he received 110 votes for vice president on the first ballot. Although he was not chosen, he had been recognized as an important national figure.

National attention began turning toward the violence in Kansas and the Supreme Court decision in the Dred Scott case, which debated the issue of slavery in the new territories. Meanwhile, Douglas had returned to

Illinois to wage his fight for reelection to the Senate. But unlike in earlier elections, Illinois had grown rapidly and the population majority had shifted from the southern part of the state to the central and northern areas. In these growing areas the Republican party had gained a growing popularity—as had Abraham Lincoln.

As Lincoln challenged Douglas for his seat in the Senate, the two engaged in legendary debates. During the Lincoln-Douglas debates, Lincoln delivered his famous “house divided” speech, stating “A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe the government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free.” Lincoln proved his ability to hold his own against the man known as the “Little Giant.” In the end Douglas was reelected as senator, but Lincoln had gained national attention and his name was soon mentioned for the presidency.

The sixteenth president

In 1860 the Republican National Convention met and chose Lincoln as their candidate for president of the United States. With a divided Democratic party and the recent formation of the Constitutional Union party, Lincoln’s election was certain. After Lincoln’s election victory, parts of the country reacted harshly against the new president’s stand on slavery. Seven Southern states then seceded, or withdrew, from the Union and formed the Confederate States of America.

In his inaugural address he clarified his position on the national situation. Secession, he said, was wrong, and the Union could not legally be broken apart. He would not interfere with slavery in the states, but he would “hold, occupy, and possess” all property and

places owned by the federal government. By now there was no avoiding the outbreak of the Civil War.

The Civil War

From this time on, Lincoln’s life was shaped by the problems and fortunes of civil war. As president, he was the head of all agencies in government and also acted as commander in chief, or supreme commander, of the armies. Lincoln was heavily criticized for early failures. Radicals in Congress were soon demanding a reorganization of his cabinet, or official advisors, and a new set of generals to lead his armies. To combat this, Lincoln himself studied military books. He correctly evaluated General Ulysses S. Grant (1822–1885) and General William T. Sherman (1820–1891) and the importance of the western campaign. Thanks, in part, to Lincoln’s reshuffling of his military leaders, the Union forces would soon capture victory over the Confederates.

Afterward, Lincoln issued his Emancipation Proclamation. The proclamation called for the freeing of all slaves in territories still at war with the Union. Later, during his Gettysburg Address, he gave the war its universal meaning as a struggle to preserve a nation based on freedoms and dedicated to the idea “that all men are created equal.”

Lincoln was reelected in 1864. As the end of the Civil War appeared close, Lincoln urged his people “to bind up the nation’s wounds” and create a just and lasting peace. But Lincoln would never be able to enjoy the nation he had reunited. Five days after the Confederate army surrendered and ended the Civil War, Lincoln was shot by John Wilkes Booth at Ford’s Theater in Washington, D.C., on April 14, 1865. The president died the next day.

Although the reasons for Lincoln's assassination would be debated, his prominent place in American history has never been in doubt. His work to free the slaves earned him the honorable reputation as the Great Emancipator. His ability to hold together a country torn apart by civil war would forever secure his place as one of America's greatest presidents.

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CHARLES LINDBERGH

Born: February 4, 1902
Detroit, Michigan
Died: August 26, 1974
Maui, Hawaii
American aviator

American aviator Charles Lindbergh became famous after making the first solo nonstop flight across the Atlantic Ocean. He was criticized for insisting that the United States should not become involved in World War II.

Early years

Charles Augustus Lindbergh was born on February 4, 1902, in Detroit, Michigan, the only child of Charles August Lindbergh and Evangeline Lodge Land Lindbergh. His father was a congressman from Minnesota from 1907 to 1917, and his grandfather had been secretary to the King of Sweden. Lindbergh spent a great deal of time alone while young, with animals and then machines to keep him company. After attending schools in Little Falls, Minnesota, and Washington, D.C., Lindbergh enrolled in a mechanical engineering program at the University of Wisconsin.

Lindbergh became bored with studying; he was more interested in cars and motorcycles at this point. He left Wisconsin to study airplane flying in Lincoln, Nebraska, from 1920 to 1922. He made his first solo flight in 1923 and thereafter made exhibition flights and short trips in the Midwest. He enrolled in the U.S. Air Service Reserve as a cadet in 1924 and graduated the next year. In 1926 he made his first flight as an airmail pilot between Chicago, Illinois, and St. Louis, Missouri.

Famous flight

Lindbergh wanted to compete for the \$25 thousand prize that a man named Raymond Orteig had posted for the first person to make a nonstop flight between New York and Paris, France. With money put up by several St. Louis businessmen, Lindbergh

had a plane called the *Spirit of St. Louis* built. On the first lap of his flight to New York, he traveled nonstop to St. Louis in fourteen hours and twenty-five minutes—record-breaking time from the West Coast.

On May 20, 1927, Lindbergh took off in his silver-winged monoplane (a plane with only one supporting surface) from Roosevelt Field in Long Island, New York, bound for an airport outside Paris. Better-equipped and better-known aviators had failed; some had even crashed to their death. But Lindbergh succeeded. He arrived on May 21, having traveled 2,610 miles in thirty-three and one-half hours. He immediately became a hero and received many honors and decorations, including the Congressional Medal of Honor, the French Chevalier Legion of Honor, the Royal Air Cross (British), and the Order of Leopold (Belgium). During a tour of seventy-five American cities sponsored by the Daniel Guggenheim Foundation for the Promotion of Aeronautics, he was greeted by wild demonstrations of praise.

In December 1927 Lindbergh flew nonstop between Washington and Mexico City, Mexico, and went on a goodwill trip to the Caribbean and Central America. During one tour he met Anne Spencer Morrow, the daughter of the U.S. ambassador (representative) to Mexico. They were married in 1929. The Lindberghs made many flights together. In 1931 they flew to Asia, mapping air routes to China. Two years later, in a 30,000-mile flight, they explored possible air routes across oceans.

Son murdered

In March 1932 the Lindberghs were shaken when their infant son was kidnapped. A \$50,000 ransom was paid, but the baby was found dead. The nation's concern and horror



Charles Lindbergh.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

resulted in laws that expanded the role of federal law-enforcement agencies in dealing with such crimes, including allowing the government to demand the death penalty for kidnappers who take victims across state lines.

The Lindberghs moved to Europe after the execution of their son's murderer in 1935. While in France Lindbergh worked with Alexis Carrel (1873–1944), an American surgeon (medical specialist who performs operations) and experimental biologist who had won the Nobel Prize in medicine in 1912. The two men perfected an "artificial heart and lungs," a pump that could keep organs alive outside the body by supplying blood and air to them.

Criticized for political opinions

In the late 1930s Lindbergh conducted various studies of air power in Europe. He toured German aviation centers at the invitation of Nazi (a political party that controlled Germany from 1933–45 and that attempted to rid the country of Jewish people) leader Hermann Göring (1893–1946), becoming convinced that the Nazi military was unbeatable. Also in the 1930s Lindbergh was on the Board of Directors of Pan-American World Airways. In 1939 he studied American airplane production as special adviser on technical matters. He also performed promotional work for aviation during this period.

Just prior to World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers of Germany, Italy, and Japan and the Allies of England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), as a member of the America First Organization, Lindbergh warned that United States involvement could not prevent a German victory. He was criticized by President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945) for radio broadcasts urging America not to fight in “other people’s wars.” As a result, Lindbergh resigned his commission in the U.S. Air Force. After Japan attacked the United States in 1941, Lindbergh supported the American effort, serving as a technician for aircraft companies. After the war he once again became a technical adviser for the U.S. Air Force, and eventually he was again commissioned a brigadier general in the Air Force Reserve.

Later years

Lindbergh’s association with the Nazis had severely damaged his reputation, but the popularity of the books he and his wife wrote helped restore some of what he had lost. Lind-

bergh wrote several accounts of his famous 1927 flight. *We* (1927) and *The Spirit of St. Louis* (1953), for which he received the Pulitzer Prize for biography, are descriptions of his early life and accomplishments. With Carrel he coauthored *Culture of Organs* (1938), and in 1948 he wrote *Of Flight and Life*.

Lindbergh’s later works included *The Wartime Journals of Charles A. Lindbergh* (1970) and *Boyhood on the Upper Mississippi: A Reminiscent Letter* (1972). *An Autobiography of Values* (1977) was published after his death. Toward the end of his life Lindbergh grew increasingly interested in the spiritual world and spoke out on environmental issues. He spent his final years with his wife in a house they had built on a remote portion of the island of Maui. He died there on August 26, 1974.

After her husband’s death, Anne Morrow Lindbergh continued to publish books of her diaries and letters. She retired to Darien, Connecticut, where a series of strokes weakened her. In 1992 she discovered that a woman whom her children had hired to manage her affairs was stealing money from her. The state of Connecticut joined with the Lindbergh children in pressing charges against the woman.

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CARL LINNAEUS

Born: May 23, 1707

Råshult, Sweden

Died: January 10, 1778

Uppsala, Sweden

Swedish naturalist

The Swedish naturalist (student of natural history) Carl Linnaeus established the binomial (two-name) system of describing living things and gave the first organization to ecology (the relationships between living things and their environments).

Early years and education

Carl Linnaeus was born on May 23, 1707, in Råshult, Sweden, the eldest of Nils and Christina Linnaeus's five children. Two years after his birth his father became the minister at Stenbrohult, Sweden. It was there that his father, who was a lover of flowers, introduced botany (the study of plants) to Carl at a young age. And at the age of five Carl had his own garden, which he later said, "inflamed my soul with an unquenchable love of plants." Carl was more interested in plants than in his studies while in grammar school. His mother hoped he would become a minister, but he showed no interest in that career. Johan Rothman, a master at the high school, encouraged Carl's interests in science

and suggested that he study medicine. Nils Linnaeus agreed, and Rothman tutored Carl for a year.

In 1727 Linnaeus entered the University of Lund. The science and medical instruction was very weak there, and after a year he transferred to Uppsala University, where things were not much better. Fortunately he attracted the interest of Olof Celsius, a religion professor who was interested in the plants of Sweden. Celsius gave Linnaeus free room and board and encouraged his study. The most important development in botany at the time was the study of the sexuality of plants. Linnaeus wrote an essay on the subject, which Celsius showed to one of the professors of medicine, Olof Rudbeck. Rudbeck was so impressed with Linnaeus that he appointed him lecturer in botany and tutor of his sons.

Linnaeus's travels

From 1732 to 1735 Linnaeus traveled throughout Sweden on behalf of the government to study the country's natural resources. Linnaeus then went to Holland to obtain a medical degree. In 1735, after a week at the University of Harderwijk, Linnaeus took the examinations, defended his thesis (a written statement containing original research and supporting a specific idea) on the cause of intermittent (not continuous) fever, and received his degree. He spent most of the next three years in Holland but also traveled in Germany, France, and England. He had many of his scientific papers published with the support of other naturalists and the wealthy banker George Clifford. Linnaeus concluded that in three years he had "written more, discovered more, and made a greater



Carl Linnaeus.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

reform in botany than anybody before had done in an entire lifetime.”

Linnaeus returned to practice medicine in Stockholm, Sweden, and he was very successful. In 1739 he married Sara Lisa Moraea, with whom he would have six children. Linnaeus became professor of botany at Uppsala University in 1741. He taught botany, zoology (the study of animals), natural history, and other subjects, and he was very popular with his students. The love of his students and the value of his work ensured his widespread influence and brought him many honors. He was appointed chief royal physician in 1747 and was knighted in 1758; he then

took the name Carl von Linné; He retired in 1776 and died in Uppsala, Sweden, on January 10, 1778.

Binomial system and classification

Linnaeus is most widely known for creating systems for naming and classifying plants and animals. Realizing that new plants were being discovered faster than their relationships could be established, he first came up with a simple classification based upon the number of floral parts of each plant. This system remained popular into the nineteenth century. Gradually Linnaeus also developed a system of names in which each species of plant and animal had a genus (class or group) name followed by a specific name. For example, *Plantago virginica* and *Plantago lanceolata* were the names of two species of *plantain* (an herb). Botanists agreed in 1905 to accept his *Species plantarum* (1753) and zoologists (scientists who study animals) agreed to accept his *Systema naturae* (1758) as the official starting points for scientific names of plants and animals.

Pioneer in ecology

Linnaeus first discussed the subject of ecology as an area of investigation in a thesis in 1749. He discussed the importance of relationships among beings in nature, and he was one of the first naturalists to describe food chains. He also studied the different habitat (living space) requirements among species and the feeding habits of insects and animals with hoofs. He urged the use of biological knowledge not only in medicine but also in agriculture, believing that the effective control of agricultural pests must be based on a thorough knowledge of their life histories.

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JOSEPH LISTER

Born: April 5, 1827

Essex, England

Died: February 10, 1912

Walmer, England

English surgeon

The English surgeon (doctor who performs operations) Joseph Lister discovered the antiseptic method, in which a germ-killing substance is applied to wounds during an operation. This represented the beginning of modern surgery (an operation to correct a disease or condition).

Early years

Joseph Lister was born in Upton, Essex, England, on April 5, 1827, the fourth of Joseph Jackson Lister and Isabella Harris Lister's seven children. His father was a wealthy wine merchant and student of Latin and

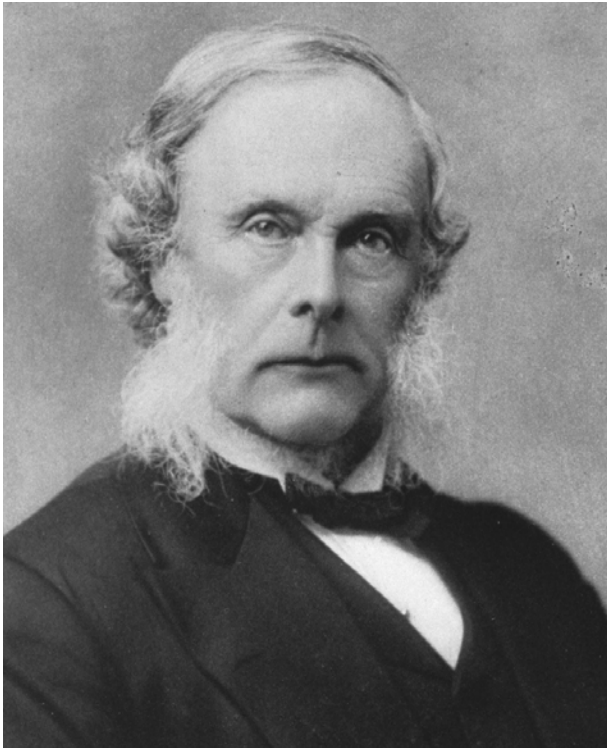
mathematics who also developed an achromatic (possessing no color) lens for the microscope. As a child Lister studied fish and small animals. He also did microscopic research, and his later acceptance of Louis Pasteur's (1822–1895) work may be related to his understanding of the process of fermentation (the chemical breakdown of a compound) in relation to the making of wine.

Lister knew at a young age that he wanted to be a surgeon, but his father made sure he completed his formal education first, just in case. As a teenager Lister attended schools at Hitchin and Tottenham, England, studying mathematics, natural science, and languages. In 1844 he entered University College in London, England, to study medicine. After graduating in 1852, he began a surgical career in Edinburgh, Scotland. In 1860 he became professor of surgery at the Royal Infirmary in Glasgow, Scotland.

Making surgery safer

With the introduction of anesthesia (something that causes a patient to lose sensation in a certain area of the body or the entire body) in the 1840s, operations had become more common. Except, many patients died from infection following surgery. Inflammation (swelling) and suppuration (pus formation) occurred in almost all accidental wounds after surgery, and more so when patients were treated at the hospital rather than at home by a visiting surgeon. The reason was unknown, but it was believed to be something in the air. As a result wounds were heavily dressed or washed with water to keep the air out; operations were a last resort. The head, chest, and stomach were almost never opened, and injured limbs were usually amputated (cut off).

LISTER



Joseph Lister.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Lister's research centered on the microscopic changes in tissue that result in inflammation. When he read Pasteur's work on germs in 1864, Lister immediately applied Pasteur's thinking to the problem he was investigating. He concluded that inflammation was the result of germs entering and developing in the wound. Since Pasteur's solution of killing germs with heat could not be applied to the living body, Lister decided to try a chemical to destroy the germs.

That same year Lister read in the newspaper that the treatment of sewage (liquid waste matter from sewers) with a chemical

called carbolic acid had led to a reduction of diseases among the people of Carlisle, England, and among the cattle grazing on sewage-treated fields. In 1865 he developed a successful method of applying carbolic acid to wounds. The technique of spraying the air in the operating room with carbolic acid was used only briefly, as it was recognized that germs in the air were not the main problem. Lister perfected the details of the antiseptic method and continued his research. He developed the surgical use of a sterile (germ-free) thread for closing wounds and introduced gauze dressings. Antisepsis became a basic principle for the development of surgery. Amputations became less frequent, as did death from infections. Now new operations could be planned and executed safely.

Later years

In 1869 Lister returned to Edinburgh, and in 1877 he was appointed professor of surgery at King's College in London, England. He won worldwide acclaim, honors, and honorary (received without fulfilling the usual requirements) doctorates and was made a baron in 1897. After he retired from medicine in 1893 he became foreign secretary of the Royal Society (Great Britain's oldest organization of scientists), and he was its president from 1895 to 1900. He died at Walmer, Kent, England, on February 10, 1912. Although Lister's antiseptic method was soon replaced by the use of asepsis (keeping the site of the operation and the instruments used free from germs), his work represented the first successful application of Pasteur's theory to surgery and marked the beginning of a new era.

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ANDREW LLOYD WEBBER

Born: March 22, 1948

London, England

English composer and musician

The English musician Andrew Lloyd Webber is the composer of such musical theater hits as *Joseph and the Amazing Technicolor Dreamcoat*, *Jesus Christ Superstar*, *Evita*, *Cats*, *Starlight Express*, *The Phantom of the Opera*, and *Aspects of Love*. His early successes brought him four Tony awards, four Drama Desk awards, and three Grammys.

Childhood inspirations

Andrew Lloyd Webber was born on March 22, 1948, in London, England. His father, William, was the director of the London College of Music, his mother, Joan Hermione, was a piano teacher, and his younger brother, Julian, is a cellist. Thus,

Lloyd Webber came by his musical ability naturally. Young Lloyd played the piano, the violin, and the French horn. Excerpts from his first musical composition, *The Toy Theatre*, were published in a British music magazine.

As a child, Lloyd Webber dreamed of becoming Britain's chief inspector of ancient monuments. He won a Challenge Scholarship to Westminster and in 1965 entered Oxford University as a history major. In the 1980s, after a long and successful career in music, he exercised his love for history through Sydmonton Court, his country estate, whose oldest section dates from the sixteenth century and where his compositions were tried out at yearly festivals.

Other childhood pastimes of Lloyd Webber's surface in his works and his approach to their staging. His keen ability to envision fully-mounted productions of even his most spectacular pieces may have stemmed, at least in part, from his experience as an eleven year old working with his elaborate toy theater, built to scale. Lloyd Webber's lifelong fascination with trains was exhibited in *Starlight Express* (1984). Some consider this his childhood fantasy gone wrong, a warped interpretation of the famous story of the little engine that could.

Lloyd Webber's formal education ended after only one term at Oxford. He left to begin work on the never-to-be-produced musical *The Likes of Us*, which is based on the life of British Dr. Bernardo, a well-known philanthropist, or one who raises money for charities. Lloyd Webber's career was closely linked with that of lyricist (writer of songs) Tim Rice, and their partnership began with this musical.



Andrew Lloyd Webber.

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Lloyd Webber and Rice

The duo's next effort was *Joseph and the Amazing Technicolor Dreamcoat* (1968, extended 1972), at first a concert piece, then expanded into a two-act production. The score demonstrates what were to become the Lloyd Webber trademarks of shifting time signatures and styles, ranging from French cafe music to calypso (a musical style originating from the West Indies), country, jazz, and rock.

In *Jesus Christ Superstar* (1971), popular music was presented in classical operatic form. Developed first as a demonstration disc for Decca Records, it began the Lloyd Web-

ber-Rice tradition of recording first, then producing. The score boasts the hit single "I Don't Know How To Love Him." Tom O'Horgan, who gained fame by directing *Hair*, directed the 1971 version at Broadway.

When Rice became irritated with a proposed musical based on the works of writer P. G. Wodehouse (1881–1975), Lloyd Webber teamed up with British playwright Alan Ayckbourn on the unsuccessful *Jeeves* (1974). During this period, Lloyd Webber also composed the film scores for *Gumshoe* (1971) and *The Odessa File* (1973).

Again, Lloyd Webber and Rice were paired for *Evita* (1976), the story of the actress who married Argentinean dictator Juan Peron (1895–1975). Veteran Broadway producer Harold Prince was hired to direct the 1978 and 1979 productions on both sides of the Atlantic. *Evita* faced the criticisms that have consistently plagued Lloyd Webber's compositions. He was accused of "borrowing" songs and his work was called "derivative," "synthetic," and a "pastiche," or imitation of others.

Success in the 1980s

Lloyd Webber's next production, *Song and Dance* (1982), was the result of combining two of his earlier pieces: *Variations* (1978) and *Tell Me on a Sunday* (1979). *Variations* (1978) is a set of cello variations written for his brother, Julian, and *Tell Me on a Sunday* (1979) is the story of an English working girl who moves to New York City and goes through a series of relationships.

Cats (1981) marked the composer's personal and professional breakthrough. Based on T. S. Eliot's (1888–1965) volume of children's

verses, *Old Possum's Book of Practical Cats*, the production was staged by Royal Shakespeare director Trevor Nunn and its extravagant scenery was created by John Napier. Rice was called in to provide assistance on the lyrics for the now-famous "Memory," but his words were abandoned in favor of Nunn's.

Lloyd Webber found himself attracted at first vocally, then romantically, to performer Sarah Brightman. She was a castmember in *Cats*, and in 1983 he abandoned his first wife, Sarah Hugill, for her. He later married Brightman and she was cast as the female lead, Christine Daae, in *The Phantom of the Opera*.

With *Cats*, putting on an enormous display became the key to success both in London and on Broadway. It was only natural that a production like *Starlight Express* would follow on its heels. Lloyd Webber and Prince were paired again for the romantic 1986 production of *Phantom of the Opera*. Lloyd Webber's production *Aspects of Love* (1989) was in many ways a "retread." The score is filled with tunes retrieved from Lloyd Webber's past, reworked for the occasion.

Production

In the 1980s Lloyd Webber turned his attention toward his production company, Really Useful Theatre Group, Inc. In April 1990 he announced his intention to take a leave from writing musicals and to turn to moviemaking, perhaps even a film version of *Cats* with Stephen Spielberg (1947–).

In July 1990 Lloyd Webber announced his impending divorce from Sarah Brightman while she was completing her summer concert tour of *The Music of Andrew Lloyd Webber*. However, the couple planned to continue working together after their divorce, despite

Lloyd Webber's early marriage in London to Madeleine Gurdon.

Lloyd Webber went on to produce *Sunset Boulevard*, in London, 1993, and in Los Angeles and on Broadway, both in 1994. Besides *The Likes of Us* (lyrics by Rice), his other unproduced plays include *Come Back Richard*, *Your Country Needs You* (with Rice), and *Cricket*.

In 2000 Lloyd Webber bought Stoll Moss, one of Britain's top theater companies, for about 85 million pounds (\$139.4 million), which made him one of London's biggest theater owners.

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ALAIN LOCKE

Born: September 13, 1886

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Died: June 9, 1954

New York, New York

African American educator and editor

Alain Locke, the distinguished African American intellectual of his generation, was the leading promoter and

LOCKE, ALAIN



Alain Locke.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

interpreter of the artistic and cultural contributions of African Americans to American life. As a professor of philosophy (the study of knowledge), his theory of “cultural pluralism” valued the uniqueness of different styles and values available within a democratic society.

Locke's childhood

Alain LeRoy Locke was born on September 13, 1886, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, into a well-known family. Alain's father, Pliny Locke, had obtained a degree in law from Howard University, and then became a mail clerk in Philadelphia. Mary Hawkins, Alain's mother, was a teacher.

Pliny Locke and Mary Hawkins were engaged for sixteen years, not marrying until they were middle aged. Alain, their only child, was brought up in a cultured home environment. When Alain was just six years old his father died, and his mother supported her son through teaching. Alain attended the Ethical Culture School, which was a school with modern ideas about education, teaching moral principles and human values. Young Alain became ill with rheumatic fever early in his childhood. The disease permanently damaged his heart and restricted his physical activities. He dealt with his weak physical condition by spending time reading books and learning to play the piano and violin.

Locke attended Central High School, graduating second in the class of 1902, and then studied at the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy, where he was first in his class. He attended Harvard University and completed Harvard's four-year program in three years, graduating magna cum laude (second in his class) in 1907, being elected to Phi Beta Kappa (an honor society made up of high-ranking American college and graduate students in the subject of liberal arts and sciences), and winning the school's most distinguished award, the Bowdoin Prize, for an essay in English. It was a remarkable achievement for anyone, especially an African American during this highly segregated (separated because of race) era.

Locke was named a Rhodes Scholar (a person who receives a scholarship to Oxford University for two to three years), the first African American chosen for this award, and sailed to England in 1907 to attend Oxford University. In 1910 he received a bachelor's degree in literature. From Oxford he moved

to Germany for advanced work in philosophy at the University of Berlin from 1910 to 1911. This time in Europe helped to intensify his interest in modern art, music and literature.

Became an educator

In September 1912, Locke was appointed assistant professor of English at Howard University, an African American college, in Washington, D.C. Frustrated, because Howard's Board of Trustees would not approve courses on comparative race relations, Locke turned his attention back to philosophy. In 1916, he received a one-year appointment as an Austin Teaching Fellow at Harvard. Two years later he received his doctorate degree and returned to Howard as a full professor of philosophy. He would head this department until his retirement in 1953.

During these years Locke was a major contributor to *Opportunity: Journal of Negro Life and Survey Graphic*. He edited a special issue of the latter publication devoted to the Harlem Renaissance, the flourishing of African American art, literature, and music in New York City during the 1920s and 1930s. Expanding it into a book and shifting the focus from Harlem to overall African American cultural life, Locke authored *The New Negro: An Interpretation* in 1925. It was an outstanding collection of the leading African American fiction, poetry, drama, and essays written by himself and others describing the changing state of race relations in the United States.

Locke became the leading authority on modern African American culture and used his position to promote the careers of young artists. He encouraged them to seek out sub-

jects in African American life and to set high artistic standards for themselves.

Locke's cultural influence

Locke served as secretary and editor of the newly established *Associates in Negro Folk Education*. Between 1936 and 1942 this organization published nine "Bronze Booklets" written by leading African American scholars. Locke wrote two of these, *Negro Art: Past and Present* and *The Negro and His Music*, and edited a third, *The Negro in Art: A Pictorial Record of the Negro Artist and of the Negro Theme in Art*. The latter reemphasized his belief that African American artists should look to the works of their African ancestors for subject matter and styles to apply to modern painting and sculpture.

Locke continued his work in philosophy, actively promoting his theory of cultural pluralism (a society made up of several different cultures and their beliefs). This interest led to his pioneering 1942 social science anthology, coedited with Bernhard Stern, *When Peoples Meet: A Study in Race and Culture Contacts*, an examination of dominant and minority populations in various countries around the world.

In demand as a visiting scholar

By the middle of the twentieth century, Locke was a member of the editorial board of the *American Scholar* and, in 1945, the first African American elected president of the American Association for Adult Education, a mainly white national organization.

During the 1945 and 1946 academic year he served as visiting professor of philosophy at the University of Wisconsin. The following

year he was a visiting professor at the New School for Social Research in what had become his second home for many years, New York City, and held a similar appointment the next year at the City College of New York (CCNY).

After 1948 Locke began teaching at both CCNY and Howard. His final achievement was to secure a Phi Beta Kappa chapter at Howard in 1953, a major milestone in the history of African American education.

Locke retired later that year and was awarded an honorary doctorate (a degree given without the usual proceedings) by Howard. He moved permanently to New York City and continued working on his magnum opus (highest achievement), *The Negro in American Culture*, a definitive study of the contribution of African Americans to American society. Unfortunately his recurrent heart problems returned in the spring of 1954, causing his death on June 9, 1954, in New York City. His unfinished manuscript was completed by Margaret Just Butcher.

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JOHN LOCKE

Born: August 29, 1632

Wrighton, England

Died: October 28, 1704

Oates, England

English philosopher and political theorist

The English philosopher and political theorist (a person who forms an explanation based upon studying and observing politics and politicians) John Locke began the empiricist tradition (the source of knowledge comes from experience and the senses) and thus started the greatest age of British philosophy (the study of knowledge). He attempted to center philosophy based on the study of importance and capabilities of the human mind.

Early years and school

John Locke was born on August 29, 1632, in Wrington, in Somerset, England, to Agnes Keene and John Locke, the elder. His mother died during his infancy, and Locke and his only brother, Thomas, were raised by their father, who was an attorney in the small town of Pensford near Bristol, England. John was tutored at home because of his delicate health and the outbreak of civil war in 1642. When he was fourteen, he entered Westminster School, where he remained for six years. He then went to Christ Church, Oxford. In 1658 he was elected a senior student at his college. As such he taught Greek and moral philosophy. In order to continue his work at the school he would have to have been ordained (officially consecrated) a minister. Instead he

changed to another study, medicine, and eventually received a license to practice. During the same period Locke met Robert Boyle (1627–1691), the distinguished scientist and one of the founders of the Royal Society, and, under Boyle's direction, took up study of natural science. Finally, in 1668, Locke was made a member of the Royal Society.

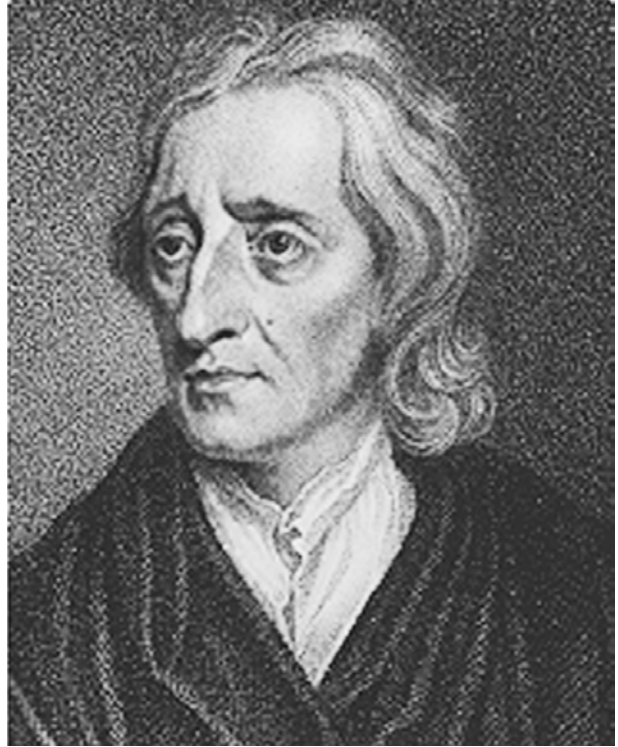
Political affairs

In 1665 Locke traveled to Europe as secretary to the English ambassador to the Brandenburg court. Upon his return to England he happened to medically treat Lord Ashley, Earl of Shaftesbury, and later lord chancellor of England. Their friendship and lifelong association drew Locke into political affairs. He attended Shaftesbury as physician and adviser, and Locke drafted *The Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina* and served as secretary to the Board of Trade. In 1676 Locke went to France for his health. An inheritance from his father made him financially independent, and he remained in Montpellier for three years.

Locke rejoined Shaftesbury's service, and when Lord Ashley fled to Holland, he followed. He remained in exile from 1683 to 1689. Most of his important writings were composed during this period. After the Glorious Revolution of 1688 (a revolution that overthrew King James II [1633–1701]) Locke returned to England and later served as a commissioner of trade until 1700. He spent his retirement at Oates, in Essex, and died there on October 28, 1704.

Major works

None of Locke's major writings were published until he was nearly sixty. In 1690



John Locke.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

he brought out his major works: *Two Treatises* and the *Essay Concerning Human Understanding*. The four books of the *Essay* were the result of twenty years of intellectual work. The aim of this work was “to inquire into the origin, certainty, and extent of human knowledge, together with the grounds of belief, opinion, and assent.”

The procedure used was what Locke called the “historical, plain method,” which consists of observations of external (outside of a person's body) sensations and the internal (within a person's mind) processes of thinking. This psychological definition of experience as sensation and reflection shifted

the focus of philosophy from an analysis of reality to an exploration of the mind. The new perspective was Locke's major contribution, and it dominated European thought for at least two centuries.

Theory of knowledge

Locke devoted the first two books of the *Essay* to developing a seemingly simple empirical theory of knowledge. Knowledge begins in the external and internal sources of sensation (use of the five senses) and careful thinking. The conclusion drawn in the *Essay* was that knowledge is relational; that is, it consists in the understanding "of the agreement or disagreement among ideas."

The third book of the *Essay* deals with words, and it was a pioneering contribution to the philosophy of language. Locke was a consistent nominalist in that for him language was a custom that was subject to judgement and words were things which "stand for nothing but the ideas in the mind of the man that has them."

The final section of the *Essay* deals with the sections of knowledge. In this view, with the exception of the self and God, all knowledge of existing things is dependent upon sensation. The shortage of real knowledge is fulfilled to some extent by human judgment, which assumes things to be true without actually being aware of the connections. And, according to Locke's commonsense attitude, the major limitations placed upon knowledge reflect that man's mental capacity is appropriate for his character and situation.

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JACK LONDON

Born: January 12, 1876

San Francisco, California

Died: November 22, 1916

Glen Ellen, California

American author

American author and supporter of socialism (a system of social organization in which the government owns and manages the distribution and production of goods) Jack London wrote popular adventure stories and social tracts (pamphlets) based on unusual personal experiences. At their best, his works are powerful and moving stories.

Early life

Jack London was born John Griffith Chaney in San Francisco, California, in 1916, the son of Flora Wellman and Henry Chaney. Jack's parents were not married at the time of his birth. Flora married a widower, John London, the same year that her son was born. John was a loving stepfather, but undertook several business and agricultural enterprises that turned out to be unsuccessful. The family, which included Eliza and Ida, daughters of John London's first marriage, moved often.

Because the economic circumstances of Jack's family steadily declined, he held several jobs at the early age of ten. He delivered papers, worked on an ice wagon, and set up pins in a bowling alley, all while going to school. Almost all of the money he earned was turned over to his parents. At the age of thirteen he left school and continued to do odd jobs. He managed to buy a fourteen-foot skiff (small, flat-bottomed open boat) and frequently sailed out into the Oakland, California, bay, often bringing library books with him.

When Jack was fifteen, John was injured in an accident. Jack went to work in a cannery full time to support his family. The work involved bending over machines that had no safety guards. Jack worked the longest hours he could, often eighteen or twenty hours at a stretch. The pay was ten cents an hour.

Jack escaped from that job by becoming an oyster bed pirate in the San Francisco Bay oyster beds. At sixteen he joined the California Fish Patrol at Benecia. Just after he turned seventeen he signed aboard a ship, the *Sophia Sutherland*, as an able-bodied seaman and headed to the Pacific Northwest for a seal-hunting expedition. After returning from his sea voyage, Jack worked in a jute (fiber from certain tropical plants used to make rope) mill, and then a power plant.

Jack completed his high school education in a year and went to the University of California for a semester. He traveled to the Alaskan Klondike with the gold prospectors and, after returning to California, launched his writing career.

Survival of the fittest

London won national acclaim for his short stories about the brutal and vigorous



Jack London.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

life of the Alaskan Yukon, published as *The Son of the Wolf* (1900). Other writings in the same genre (type) followed. The best known is *The Call of the Wild* (1903), which describes how an Alaskan dog leaves civilization to join a wolf pack. *The Sea-Wolf* (1904) tells of the conversion of a civilized man to a simple way of living.

These books stress the primitive survival of the fittest. This stems from London's belief in the theories of evolution that Charles Darwin (1809–1892) wrote about. (Evolution is the theory that groups of organisms may change or develop over a long period of time.) Other tales that developed similar

themes are *White Fang* (1906), *The Strength of the Strong* (1911), *Smoke Bellew* (1912), and *The Abysmal Brute* (1913).

Influence of socialism

London was also influenced by the socialistic theories of Karl Marx (1818–1883). An early book, *The People of the Abyss* (1903), described slum conditions in London, England. Other books of the same type included *The War of the Classes* (1905), *The Iron Heel* (1907), *The Valley of the Moon* (1913), and *The Human Drift* (1917).

Two of London's best books are semi-autobiographical (based on his own experiences)—*Martin Eden* (1909) and *John Barleycorn* (1913). The former recounts his struggles as a writer; the latter tells about his long-lasting fight against alcoholism.

London's life and work hold many contradictions. He believed in socialism, and he believed in Darwin's idea of survival of the fittest. He felt his own success illustrated the concept of the superman who stands above the ordinary person and triumphs by force of will. Although his work is often regarded as adventure stories for young people, it also deals with the adult theme of environmental determinism, or the idea that the world shapes us in ways we are powerless to resist.

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HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW

Born: February 27, 1807

Portland, Maine

Died: March 24, 1882

Cambridge, Massachusetts

American poet

The sentimental (appealing to the emotions) poems of the American writer Henry Wadsworth Longfellow made him an extremely popular author at home and in other countries in the nineteenth century.

Early life

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow was born in Portland, Maine, on February 27, 1807, into an established New England family. As the son of a prominent lawyer, Henry was expected to have a similar profession as an adult. He attended Portland Academy and then Bowdoin College, in Maine, graduating in 1825. He was an excellent student whose skill in learning foreign languages led the trustees (persons appointed to administer the affairs of an institution) at Bowdoin (of which his father was one) to offer the young graduate a professorship of modern languages. He

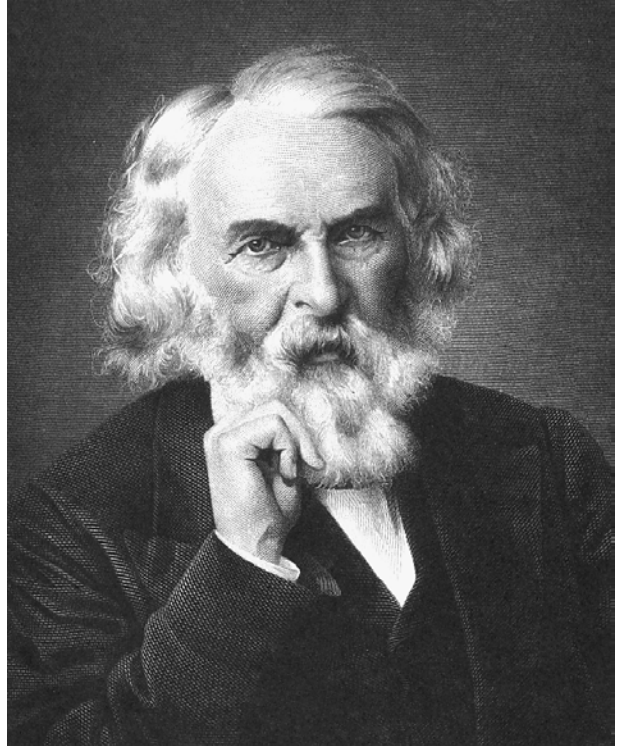
prepared himself further with study abroad (in Europe), at his own expense, before undertaking his duties. When he started his new position he had to create his own textbooks, because the study of modern languages was such a new field.

Young writer

During Longfellow's three years in Europe his lifelong harmony with Old World (European) civilization was firmly established. He returned home in 1829 and two years later married Mary Storer Potter. In 1833 he published *Outre-Mer: A Pilgrimage beyond the Sea*, a collection of picturesque (forming a pleasing picture) travel essays modeled after Washington Irving's (1783–1859) *Sketch Book*.

In 1834 Longfellow accepted a professorship at Harvard University in Cambridge, Massachusetts. He did not start his new job until 1837, after he had completed a tour of European and Scandinavian (northern European) countries. During this trip his wife died. While staying at Heidelberg, Germany, he came under the spell of the works of the German romantic poet Novalis (1772–1801). Novalis's moody, mystical (pertaining to a spiritual event) nocturnalism (pertaining to the night) struck a responsive chord in the grieving Longfellow.

In 1839 Longfellow published the sentimental prose romance *Hyperion* and his first volume of poetry, *Voices of the Night*. In *Hyperion* he rather indiscreetly (lacking sound judgment) told the story of his courtship of Frances Appleton, whom he had met in Europe soon after his wife's death. They were married in 1843. Her father, a wealthy Boston, Massachusetts, merchant, gave them



Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

Craigie House as a wedding present. This house became a famous visiting place for Longfellow's admirers. It is now called Longfellow House and is a national historic site. It holds most of the original furnishings from Longfellow's time, including his personal library of over ten thousand books.

Early poetry

Longfellow's poem "Hymn to the Night," in *Voices of the Night*, conveys the poet's debt to Novalis and his romantic kinship with the "calm, majestic presence of the Night." However, "A Psalm of Life," one of the best-known poems from this first volume, reflects the influence of the famed German poet Johann

Wolfgang von Goethe (1749–1832). His forceful philosophy suggested to Longfellow the direction of his hymn to action: “Life is real! Life is earnest! / Be not like dumb, driven cattle! / Be a hero in the strife.” *Voices of the Night* was well received, and within a few years forty-three thousand copies had been sold. Longfellow’s audience as a popular writer was assured.

Longfellow’s next volume, *Ballads and Other Poems* (1842), contained two strong narrative poems, “The Wreck of the Hesperus” and “The Skeleton in Armor,” as well as the sentimental verses “Maidenhood” and “The Rainy Day” (“Into each life some rain must fall, / Some days must be dark and dreary”) and the moralizing (explaining in the sense of right and wrong) poem “The Village Blacksmith.”

After a trip to Europe in 1842 Longfellow published *Poems on Slavery* (1842) and *The Spanish Student: A Play in Three Acts* (1843). In 1845 two volumes of poetry appeared: the anthology (a series of chosen literary pieces) *The Waif*, to which Longfellow contributed the poem “The Day Is Done”; and *The Belfry of Bruges and Other Poems*. Several poems in this second collection reflect Longfellow’s deep attachment to the traditions of European culture. In addition, this volume contained the popular “The Old Clock on the Stairs,” “The Arrow and the Song,” “The Arsenal at Springfield,” “The Bridge,” and one of his best sonnets (traditional, fourteen-line poems), “Mezzo Cammin.”

Epic poems

Longfellow wrote several epic poems. An epic poem is a long poem that tells a story, typically about a hero, and centers on uncommon achievements and events. He

achieved a national reputation with the publication of *Evangeline* (1847), a highly sentimental narrative poem on the expulsion (driving out) of the French from Acadia. He wrote *Evangeline* in dactylic hexameters. Dactyls are poetic feet of three syllables, with the first syllable long or accented and the others short or unaccented. Hexameters are verses having six poetic feet. The book was enthusiastically received.

Longfellow next released the unimaginative romantic novel *Kavanagh* (1849) and *By the Seaside and the Fireside* (1850), which contained the very popular nationalistic (designed to arouse pride in one’s country) poem “The Building of the Ship”: “Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State! / Sail on, O UNION, strong and great!”

In 1854 Longfellow resigned his Harvard professorship to devote himself to his writing career. A year later he published *The Song of Hiawatha*, a narrative epic poem on the Native American. For this work Longfellow drew on Henry Schoolcraft’s books on Native Americans. He wrote in trochees or poetic feet of two syllables, the first long or accented and the second short or unaccented. In short order, he repeated the success of *Hiawatha* with *The Courtship of Miles Standish* (1858).

Major projects in later years

Following the tragic death of Longfellow’s second wife in a fire in their home in 1861, he busied himself with the *Tales of a Wayside Inn* (1863), in which various speakers, sitting around a fireplace, narrate stories. Other tales appeared in 1872 and 1873. Longfellow also translated poetry from eighteen languages. His most significant transla-

tion, published in 1867, was of a long poem by the medieval writer Dante Alighieri (1265–1321) called the *Divine Comedy*.

In the last phase of Longfellow's long career, he worked on another major project, *The Christus: A Mystery*. Completed in 1872, this work was concerned with "various aspects of Christendom in the Apostolic, Middle, and Modern Ages." The work came in three parts. An earlier work, *The Golden Legend* (1851), formed part II; part III, *The New England Tragedies* (1868), dealt with Puritan (a religious group in New England that stressed a strict moral code) themes; and, finally, part I, *The Divine Tragedy* (1871), concerned the life of Jesus Christ.

Several more volumes of Longfellow's verse were issued before his death on March 24, 1882, in Cambridge, Massachusetts. After his death, he became the first American whose bust (sculpture of one's head) was placed in the Poet's Corner in Westminster Abbey, London, England.

To the modern reader, Longfellow's sentimental and optimistic poetry often sounds old-fashioned. He used his wide knowledge of the literature of other countries as a source for both the form and content of many of his poems. Several of his poems are set in other countries including Italy, Spain, France, and Norway. It should be remembered that Longfellow wrote for the common man. In his elegant and clear style he presented popular American values, such as the family circle and heroism.

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JOE LOUIS

Born: May 13, 1914

Lexington, Alabama

Died: April 12, 1981

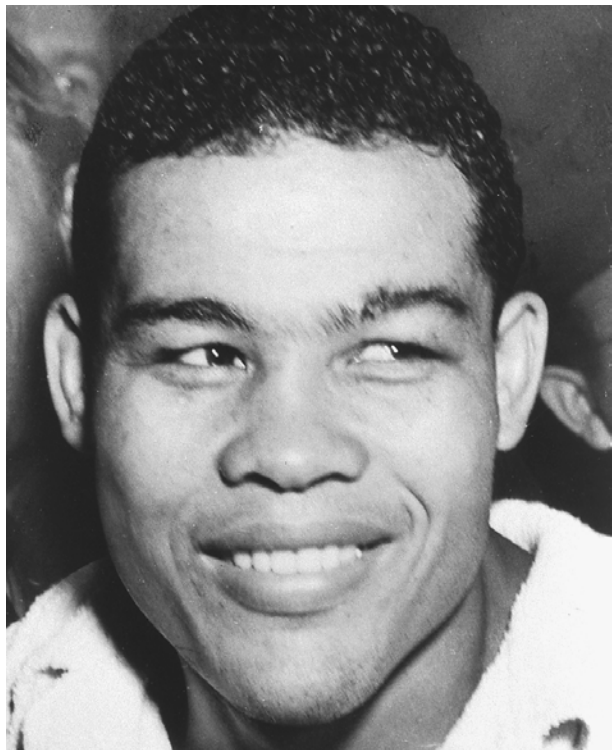
Las Vegas, Nevada

African American boxer

African American boxer Joe Louis was world heavyweight champion from 1937 to 1948. He defended his title twenty times in four years.

Early years

Joseph Louis Barrow, born on May 13, 1914, was the seventh of eight children of Munroe Barrow and Lily Reese. His father was an Alabama sharecropper and died when Joe was four. His mother took in washing to support her family. Joe was close to his large family, particularly to his mother, from whom he inherited a deep religious sentiment. His mother married Patrick Brooks, with children of his own, when Joe was seven, and the family moved to Detroit, Michigan, in 1926.



Joe Louis.

Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.

After Brooks lost his job, Joe and his brothers shined shoes, ran errands, and sold newspapers before and after school to help out the family. Joe also worked as an assistant to an ice-wagon driver. He later said that carrying heavy ice helped him to develop his big shoulder muscles.

As a teenager, Joe was the best boxer of his group. At nineteen he won the National Light Heavyweight Amateur Crown of the Golden Gloves in 1933.

Louis received his ring name from one of his managers, John Roxborough, who found the name Joe Louis Barrow too long. Jack Blackburn, a very knowledgeable boxing

man, was Louis's trainer. He taught Louis how to punch and worked with him to develop his body coordination.

Early matches

Before Louis became champion, he was beaten once, by Max Schmeling in 1936. The following year he defeated Jim Braddock for the championship. In 1938 Louis met Schmeling again and knocked him out in the first two minutes of the first round. Louis fought boxers including Billy Conn, Tony Galento, Rocky Marciano (1923–1969), and “Jersey Joe” Walcott (1914–1994). He won nineteen other title fights.

During World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies: England, France, the United States, and the Soviet Union) Louis was drafted, served faithfully, and fought two bouts for army and navy relief.

The curse of many victories in a short period of time was the accumulation of a heavy tax burden. For example, Louis won \$349,228 for his victory over Schmeling and \$591,117 for beating Conn. In his entire ring career he earned \$4,677,992. But his federal income taxes were \$1,199,000. When penalties were assessed, taxes became astronomical.

Business ventures

Another source of trouble for Louis was his partnership in a public relations firm. In the early 1960s this firm entered into a contract with Cuba for \$250,000 to promote tourism. Although this was not illegal, it was considered in poor taste to deal with a country with whom the United States did not maintain diplomatic relations.

Louis's other business ventures included the Joe Louis Food Franchise, a chain of food shops he opened in 1969 with his former ring rival Billy Conn. The former champ also served as a celebrity greeter at the Caesar's Palace Casino in Las Vegas, Nevada.

Final years

Unfortunately, drugs took a toll on the once indomitable (not able to be beaten) champion in his final years. In 1969, he was hospitalized after collapsing on a New York City street. While the incident was at first credited to "physical breakdown," Louis later admitted to cocaine use and fears of a plot against his life. The following year, Louis spent five months in the hospital suffering from paranoid delusions (irrational anxiety and fear toward others). Strokes and heart ailments caused his condition to worsen. He had surgery to correct an aortic aneurysm (abnormal widening of a blood vessel) in 1977 and was thereafter confined to a wheelchair.

Despite failing health, Louis still found time to attend major boxing events. On April 12, 1981, he sat ringside at the Larry Holmes and Trevor Berbick heavyweight championship bout at Caesar's Palace. Hours after the fight, Louis went into cardiac arrest (a heart failure) and died at the age of sixty-six.

In 1994, the bronzed boxing glove that Louis used to defeat Max Schmeling was donated to the city of Detroit by the Michigan Jewish Sports Hall of Fame. Dubbed "The Glove That Floored Nazi Germany," it was enshrined in a plexiglass case at the city's Cobo Center, a monument to Louis's enduring legacy.

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GEORGE LUCAS

Born: May 14, 1944

Modesto, California

American director, screenwriter, and producer

American filmmaker George Lucas created some of the most profitable movies in history, including the *Star Wars* and *Indiana Jones* films. Lucas is also responsible for many new developments in filmmaking, especially involving special effects.

Early years

George Walton Lucas Jr. was born in Modesto, California, on May 14, 1944, the only son among George and Dorothy Lucas's four children. His father sold office supplies and equipment and owned a walnut farm. Lucas was not a good student; he enjoyed racing cars and owned a souped-up, high-powered Fiat (a brand of Italian automobile)

in high school. Shortly before graduating he was involved in a serious car accident, nearly dying from his injuries. After recovering from a three-month hospital stay, Lucas decided that he wanted to go to art school. His parents refused to pay for it, so he instead enrolled at Modesto Junior College to study social sciences.

Lucas became interested in photography and film and began making films with a small camera. While photographing a car race he met Haskell Wexler (1922–), a famous cinematographer (motion picture cameraman), who helped him get into the University of Southern California (USC) film school. Lucas produced eight student films, including *THX-1138: 4EB* (1965), in which he explored his vision of the future. After graduating Lucas worked as a cameraman (he filmed part of the famous 1968 Rolling Stones concert in Altamont, California, in which a man was stabbed to death) and as an editor for films produced by the United States Information Agency. While at this job he met Marcia Griffin, a film editor. They married in 1969 and adopted a child in 1981. The couple divorced in 1984, and Lucas later adopted two children on his own.

Early film career

In 1969 Lucas won a scholarship from Warner Brothers Studios, which allowed him on the set to watch the filming of *Finian's Rainbow*, which was being directed by Francis Ford Coppola (1939–). Lucas and Coppola became friends, and Lucas helped edit the film. Lucas also worked on Coppola's next film, *The Rain People*. Through Coppola's newly created film studio and production company, American Zoetrope, Lucas made

his first feature, *THX—1138*, based on the short film he made as a student.

In 1973 Lucas experienced his first real film success with *American Graffiti*, which focused on one summer night in 1962, following teenage boys and their cars. Lucas co-wrote the script and directed it, with Coppola serving as a co-producer. *American Graffiti* was filmed in less than a month for a little over \$750,000. Although Universal, the studio that had paid for the production, did not believe *American Graffiti* would make a profit, by several months after its release it had become the surprise hit of the year. It was one of the most profitable films of the 1970s and was nominated (put forward for consideration) for five Academy Awards.

Star Wars

Lucas next began working on the script for an original space story, *Star Wars*. He planned the story as a series of three related trilogies (series of three works); *Star Wars* was the first episode of the middle trilogy. The film included elements of westerns, soap operas, and other types of films as well. The Lucas-directed *Star Wars* was released in May 1977. It received very positive reviews. His very personal vision also appealed to a mass audience. The film smashed all box office records, and many people went to see it more than once.

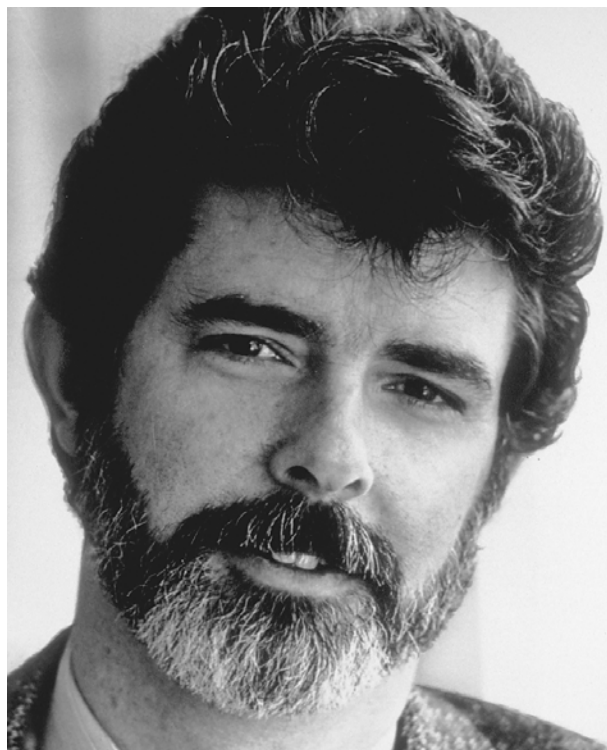
Star Wars earned \$400 million worldwide in its first release. The experience of making the film, though, left Lucas exhausted, and he did not direct another film for twenty years. He had made a wise decision to turn down a director's fee (money that a director receives for making a film) for his work on the film in exchange for rights to merchandising (the ability to make money

from products, such as toys, related to the movie). He also retained the rights to the *Star Wars* sequels (follow-up films). Lucas made \$500 million between 1977 and 1980 from the sale of *Star Wars* merchandise, including books, toys, kits, and consumer items. He managed the merchandising through his company, LucasFilm Ltd., which was established in 1979. Lucas set up other companies to manage his film empire.

In 1980 the second film in Lucas's trilogy, *The Empire Strikes Back*, was released. Lucas was the executive producer (one who pays for the release of a movie) and wrote the story on which the script was based. Although some criticized the story, many noted that the special effects were better. Lucas returned to a more active role in 1983's *The Return of the Jedi*. He co-wrote the script and again served as executive producer. While the special effects were excellent, critics thought they took attention away from the characters and the story. Still, all three films together brought in \$1 billion. Sales of official merchandise brought in over \$3 billion.

Other successful projects

At the time Lucas began developing *Star Wars*, he had an idea for another series of films. The *Indiana Jones* series was developed as a tribute to adventure films of the 1940s. Lucas wrote the story and served as producer for the first *Indiana Jones* movie, entitled *Raiders of the Lost Ark*. His story again pleased both critics and audiences. Lucas was less involved in the next two *Indiana Jones* movies, *Indiana Jones and the Temple of Doom* and *Indiana Jones and the Last Crusade*. In 1992 he produced a television series, *The Young Indiana Jones Chronicles*, which lasted



George Lucas.

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for only one season. Throughout the 1980s and most of the 1990s Lucas worked mainly as a producer. Movies such as *Howard the Duck* (1986) and *Radioland Murders* (1994) were failures; others, such as *Tucker: The Man and His Dream* (1988) and *Willow* (1988), were more successful.

Lucas, with profits from his films and LucasFilm, Ltd., founded Skywalker Ranch, a production house (a place where a movie is edited for theatrical release) in California. Lucas based all of his companies there; one in particular changed the face of the film industry. Originally created to handle the special effects for *Star Wars*, Industrial Light and

Magic (ILM) improved film technology (applied science) through research and development. ILM branched out to do special effects for other movies, such as *Star Trek* and *E.T.: The Extra-Terrestrial*. ILM was also responsible for THX, an improved sound system found in many movie theaters.

Vision continues

Though many doubted the other two *Star Wars* trilogies would ever be made, in 1994 Lucas began writing the scripts for the first trilogy. To prepare audiences, “special edition” versions of the original *Star Wars* trilogy were released in theaters beginning in 1997. Using effects developed by his companies, Lucas fixed some of the errors in the first films and included new scenes, adding four and a half minutes to *Star Wars*.

In May 1999 Lucas released *The Phantom Menace*, the first installment of the first *Star Wars* trilogy. Lucas directed the film and wrote the script. In December 2001 Lucas donated several items used in the *Star Wars* films to the online auction firm eBay to raise money for relatives of the victims of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks on the United States. In 2002 the next *Star Wars* film, *Attack of the Clones*, was released.

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PATRICE LUMUMBA

Born: July 2, 1925

Kasai, Congo

Died: January 18, 1961

Katanga, Congo

Congolese prime minister

Patrice Lumumba was the first prime minister of the Republic of the Congo. He was a leading figure in the Congo as that country established its independence from Belgium, which had controlled the Congo since the late nineteenth century. Lumumba's murder in 1961 has made him a symbol of struggle for champions of African nations' attempts to unite and to break free of the influence of the European powers that once colonized (held territory in) the continent.

Child of a village

Patrice Emery Lumumba was born on July 2, 1925, in the tiny village of Onalua in northeastern Kasai, a Congolese province (political unit or region). At the time of his birth, the Congo was still a colony (a territory governed by a foreign power) of Belgium. As a child, Lumumba attended Protestant and then Catholic schools run by white missionaries—that is, by people sent to do religious

or charitable work on behalf of their church. At the mission schools, Lumumba proved to be a fine student, even though the mud-brick house he lived in had no electricity and he could not study after dark. In addition, the mission schools were poorly equipped, with few textbooks or basic school supplies.

Nevertheless, Lumumba's teachers spotted his quick intelligence and loaned him their own books, encouraging him to advance. Some teachers also found that his intelligence caused them problems, feeling he asked too many troublesome questions.

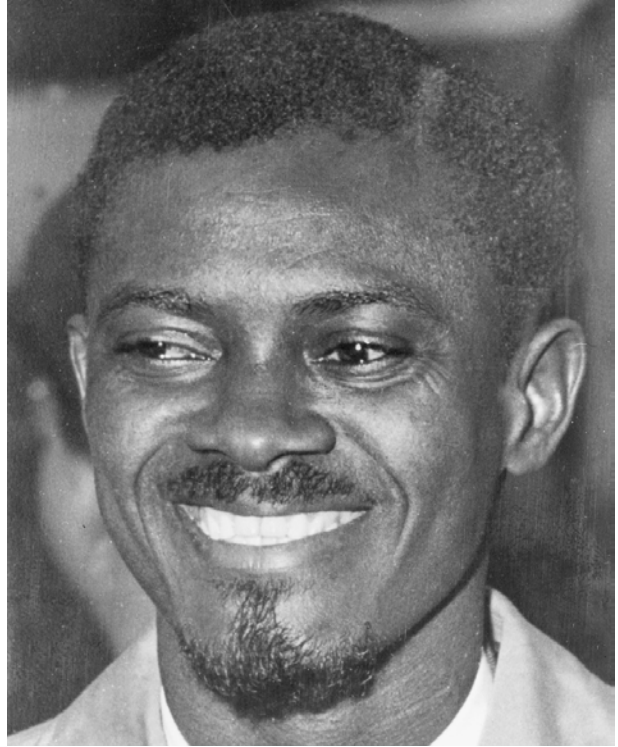
Political leader

As a young man, Lumumba found a job as a postal clerk in the city of Stanleyville (now called Kisangani) in 1954. There he rapidly became a community leader and organized a postal workers' labor union. His activities were encouraged by local members of the Belgian Liberal political party.

In 1957, having been appointed to the position of sales director for a brewery, Lumumba left Stanleyville for the Congo's capital, Léopoldville (now called Kinshasa). There he soon became involved in an important political project. He helped to found the Movement National Congolais (MNC) political party, which aimed to represent all Congolese, rather than representing only the interests of a particular tribe or region. Lumumba's exciting personality and public speaking talents soon won him prominence in this party.

National figure

In 1959 the Belgian authorities announced a new plan for the Congo. They proposed



Patrice Lumumba.

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to hold local elections that would lead within five years to full Congolese independence. During that year, Lumumba gained recognition as the only truly national figure on the Congo political scene. His persuasive, attractive personality dominated the political meeting called the Luluabourg Congress in April 1959, in which all the political groups who favored a unitary form of government for the Congo—one that would unite tribes and regions into one nation—attempted to establish a common front. However, Lumumba's growing reputation and seemingly radical views caused hostility among other MNC leaders. The result of this disagreement was a

split in the party in July 1959. Most of the party's original founders supported Albert Kalonji as their representative, while Lumumba held onto the loyalty of most other party members.

Lumumba was briefly imprisoned in November 1959 on charges of encouraging the outbreak of riots in Stanleyville, but he was set free in time to attend the Round Table Conference in Brussels, Belgium. The Belgian government had called for this conference as a forum in which all Congolese political parties could discuss plans for their country's future. At the conference, Lumumba's dramatic presence stole the show from other Congolese leaders. His efforts throughout this period were directed more firmly than those of any other Congolese politician toward the organization of a nationwide movement for an independent Congo.

Head of government

In the May 1960 general elections, Lumumba and his allies won 41 of 137 seats in the National Assembly (the Congo's legislature). They also gained important positions in four of six provincial governments. As leader of the largest single party, Lumumba was somewhat reluctantly selected by the Belgians to become the Congo's first prime minister (and minister of defense) a week before independence. Lumumba's longtime political rival Joseph Kasavubu became president of the republic with Lumumba's apparent support.

During his brief time in office, Lumumba had to face an unusually high number of sudden emergencies. These included the revolt of the army and the secession (formal withdrawal from the Congo) of the provinces of Katanga and Southern Kasai, which had been

encouraged by Belgian interests and military forces. Lumumba turned to the United Nations (UN) for support, only to discover that it had no intention of accepting his definition of what was best for the Congo. It insisted on opposing the use of any force to alter the situation. Desperate for help, Lumumba asked for support from the Soviet Union to begin military action against the secessionist governments of Southern Kasai and Katanga. He was stopped in this attempt when President Kasavubu dismissed him from office in September 1960.

The National Assembly put Lumumba back in power as prime minister, but a small group from the army, led by Colonel Mobutu, took over the government instead. Lumumba was put under unofficial house arrest (confinement in one's home). Meanwhile, his political associates had gone to Stanleyville to organize a rival government. Lumumba slipped out of the capital and tried to make his way toward Stanleyville, but he was arrested by an army patrol and held prisoner in a military camp at Thysville.

Lumumba's death and legacy

Even after his imprisonment, Lumumba's reputation and the strength of his followers remained a threat to the unstable new rulers of the Congo. This was demonstrated when Lumumba nearly managed the incredible feat of persuading his military jailers to help him retake power. This incident only strengthened the conviction of authorities in the capital to get rid of Lumumba. They formed a plan to transfer him to either one of the secessionist states of Southern Kasai or Katanga (where he was sure to be executed) as a possible way of reconciling with these two breakaway regions.

On January 18, 1961, Lumumba was flown to Elisabethville, the capital of Katanga. There, despite the presence of UN troops, he was picked up by a small group led by Katanga's interior minister and included white mercenaries (professional soldiers hired by a foreign army). He was taken to a nearby house and murdered.

The Katanga government made clumsy attempts to cover up the murder, but the shock waves caused by the killing traveled around the world. They created enough international pressure to cause the UN Security Council to permit the use of force as a last resort by UN forces in the Congo. This decision caused events that led to the restoration of a civilian government in Léopoldville and to the eventual end of all movements by regions to secede from the Congo. In addition, Lumumba's tragic murder caused him to be hailed as a hero and symbol for various causes after his death. However, he is best remembered as a passionate believer in the power of African nations to shape their own destinies and free themselves from colonial influence.

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MARTIN LUTHER

Born: November 10, 1483

Saxony, Germany

Died: February 18, 1546

Saxony, Germany

German reformer

The German reformer (one who works to change outdated practices and beliefs) Martin Luther was the first and greatest figure in the sixteenth-century Reformation. An author of commentaries on Scripture (sacred writings), theology (the study of religion), and priestly abuses, a hymnologist (writer of hymns [sacred songs]), and a preacher, from his own time to the present he has been a symbol of Protestantism (group of Christian faiths that do not believe in the supremacy of the pope, but in the absolute authority of the Bible).

Family and education

Martin Luther was born at Eisleben in Saxony, Germany, on November 10, 1483, the son of Hans and Margaret Luther. Luther's parents were peasants, but his father had worked hard to raise the family's status, first as a miner and later as the owner of several small mines, to become a small-scale businessman. In 1490 Martin was sent to the Latin school at Mansfeld, in 1497 to Magdeburg, and in 1498 to Eisenach. His early education was typical of late-fifteenth-century practice. To a young man in Martin's situation, the law and the church offered the only chance for a successful career. He chose to become a lawyer to increase the Luther fam-

ily's success, which Hans had begun. Martin was enrolled at the University of Erfurt in 1501. He received a bachelor of arts degree in 1502 and a master of arts in 1505. In the same year he enrolled in the instructors of law, giving every sign of being a dutiful and, likely, a very successful, son.

Religious conversion

Between 1503 and 1505, however, Martin experienced a religious crisis that would take him from the study of law forever. A dangerous accident in 1503, the death of a friend a little later, and Martin's own personal religious development had by 1505 changed his focus. Then, on July 2, 1505, returning to Erfurt after visiting home, Martin was caught in a severe thunderstorm and flung to the ground in terror; at that moment he vowed to become a monk if he survived. This episode changed the course of Luther's life. Two weeks later, against his father's wishes and to the dismay of his friends, Martin Luther entered the Reformed Congregation of the Eremitical Order of St. Augustine at Erfurt.

Life as a monk at Erfurt was difficult. Luther made his vows in 1506 and was ordained (officially given a religious position in the church) a priest in 1507. No longer in disagreement with his father, he was then selected for advanced theological study at the University of Erfurt.

Luther at Wittenberg

In 1508 Luther was sent to the University of Wittenberg to lecture in arts. He was also preparing for his doctorate of theology while he taught. In 1510 Luther was sent to Rome, Italy, and in 1512 received his doctorate in theology. Then came the second significant

turn in Luther's career: he was appointed professor of theology at Wittenberg. He was to teach throughout the rest of his life.

In 1509 Luther published his lectures on Peter Lombard (1095–1160); in 1513–1515 those on the Psalms; in 1515–1516 on St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans; and in 1516–1518 on the epistles to the Galatians and Hebrews. Besides instruction and study, however, Luther had other duties. From 1514 he preached in the parish church; he was regent (head) of the monastery school; and in 1515 he became the supervisor of eleven other monasteries.

Righteousness of God

The doctrine of justification, taking shape in Luther's thought between 1515 and 1519, drew him further into theological thought as well as into certain positions of practical priestly life. The most famous of these is the controversy (causing opposing viewpoints) over indulgences. A person who committed a sin would buy an indulgence from the church to avoid punishment—especially punishment after death. In 1513 a great effort to distribute indulgences was proclaimed throughout Germany. In 1517 Luther posted the Ninety-Five Theses for an academic debate on indulgences on the door of the castle church at Wittenberg. This was the customary time and place to display such an article. They were given widespread fame and called to the attention of both theologians and the public.

News of Luther's theses spread, and in 1518 he was called before Cardinal Cajetan, the Roman Catholic representative at Augsburg, to deny his theses. Refusing to do so, Luther returned to Wittenberg, where, in the

next year, he agreed to a debate with the theologian Johann Eck (1486–1543). The debate soon became a struggle between Eck and Luther in which Luther was driven by his opponent to taking even more radical theological positions, thus laying himself open to the charge of heresy (believing in something that opposes what is formally taught by the Church). By 1521 Eck secured a papal bull (decree) condemning Luther, and Luther was summoned to the Imperial Diet at Worms (meeting of the Holy Roman Empire held at Worms, Germany) in 1521 to answer the charges against him.

Diet of Worms

Luther came face to face with the power of the Roman Catholic Church and empire at Worms in 1521. He was led to a room in which his writings were piled on a table and ordered to disclaim them. He replied that he could not do this. Luther left Worms and was taken, for his own safety, to the castle of Wartburg, where he spent some months in privacy, beginning his great translation of the Bible into German and writing numerous essays.

Return to Wittenberg

In 1522 Luther returned to Wittenberg and continued the writing that would fill the rest of his life. In 1520 he had written three of his most famous tracts (written piece of propaganda, or material written with the intent of convincing people of a certain belief): *To The Christian Nobility of the German Nation*; *On the Babylonian Captivity of the Church*; and *Of the Liberty of a Christian Man*.

In 1525 Luther married Katherine von Bora, a nun who had left her convent. From



Martin Luther.

*Courtesy of the New York Public Library
Picture Collection.*

that date until his death, Luther's family life became not only a model Christian home but a source of psychological support to him.

Luther's writings continued to flow steadily. Among the most important are the *Great Catechism* and the *Small Catechism* of 1529 and his collection of sermons and hymns, many of the latter, like *Ein Feste Burg*, still sung today.

Debates with Theologians

In 1524–1525 Luther entered into a discussion of free will with the great Erasmus

(1466–1536). Luther's *On the Will in Bondage* (1525) remained his final statement on the question. In 1528 he turned to the question of Christ's presence in the Eucharist (communion with God) in his *Confession concerning the Lord's Supper*.

In 1530 Luther supervised, although he did not entirely agree with, the writing of Philipp Melancthon's (1497–1560) *Augsburg Confession*, one of the foundations of later Protestant thought. From 1530 on Luther spent as much time arguing with other Reformation leaders on matters of theology as with his Catholic opponents.

In 1539 Luther wrote his *On Councils and Churches* and witnessed in the following years the failure of German attempts to heal the wounds of Christianity. In the 1540s Luther was stricken with disease a number of times, drawing great comfort from his family and from the devotional exercises that he had written for children. In 1546 he was called

from a sickbed to settle the disputes of two German noblemen. On the return trip he fell ill and died at Eisleben, the town of his birth, on February 18, 1546.

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reader's guide

U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

for further information. A contents section lists biographees by their nationality. Nearly 750 photographs and illustrations are featured, and a general index provides quick access to the people and subjects discussed throughout *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*.

Special thanks

Much appreciation goes to Mary Alice Anderson, media specialist at Winona Middle School in Winona, Minnesota, and Nina Levine, library media specialist at Blue Mountain Middle School in Cortlandt Manor, New York, for their assistance in developing the entry list. Many thanks also go to the following people for their important editorial contri-

butions: Taryn Benbow-Pfalzgraf (proofreading), Jodi Essey-Stapleton (copyediting and proofing), Margaret Haerens (proofreading), Courtney Mroch (copyediting), and Theresa Murray (copyediting and indexing). Special gratitude goes to Linda Mahoney at LM Design for her excellent typesetting work and her flexible attitude.

Comments and suggestions

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DOUGLAS MACARTHUR

Born: January 26, 1880

Little Rock, Arkansas

Died: April 5, 1964

Washington, D.C.

American general

American general Douglas MacArthur attained widespread fame through his military activities in the Pacific region during World War II (1939–45) and the Korean War (1950–53). His military conquests were sometimes inspiring and other times highly criticized. Regardless, MacArthur

remains the key figure in the American victory in the Pacific during World War II.

Student to soldier

Douglas MacArthur was born in Little Rock, Arkansas, on January 26, 1880, the descendant of a long line of military men. His father, Arthur MacArthur, was a well-known general. Educated in a random fashion on the rugged Western frontier posts, Douglas MacArthur recalled, “I learned to ride and shoot even before I could read or write.”

An average student, MacArthur began to excel upon entering the military academy at West Point, New York, in 1899. Proud and convinced of his destiny as a military leader,



Douglas MacArthur.

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MacArthur graduated first in his class in 1903 with the highest scholastic average at the academy in twenty-five years. After graduation from the academy, MacArthur sailed to the Philippines for his first military assignment. In 1904 he was promoted to first lieutenant, and that October was ordered to become his father's aide-de-camp (secretary) in Japan. Shortly thereafter he embarked upon a tour of the Far East, which he later called the "most important preparation of my entire life."

Rising military career

Returning to the United States, MacArthur began his fast rise through the mili-

tary ranks. In 1906 he was appointed aide-de-camp to President Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) and in 1913 became a member of the general staff. He was appointed colonel of the Rainbow Division during World War I (1914–18), or the Great War, in which European powers, along with America and Russia, waged war over control of Europe. MacArthur emerged as a talented and colorful military leader. He returned from combat with many military honors.

Following the war, he became a brigadier general and superintendent of West Point, where he remained until 1922. After another assignment in the Philippines, MacArthur was appointed chief of staff of the U.S. Army in 1930, a post he held through 1935.

In between wars

The years between World War I and World War II were frustrating ones for professional soldiers, and MacArthur was no exception. In 1922 he married Louise Cromwell Brooks and divorced her in 1929. Soon afterward, the national economy bottomed out during the 1930s, as the Great Depression (a period from 1929 to 1939 during which nearly half the industrial workers in the country lost their jobs) consumed America. Gloomy about the social unrest of the 1930s, he warned a Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, audience in 1932 about the presence of Communists (people who believed in communism, a political system in which goods and property are owned by the government). At a time of great uncertainty, MacArthur was able to stir fears that Communists were living in America.

In June 1932 thousands of ragged veterans of World War I marched on Washington,

D.C., to petition Congress for early payment of their war service bonuses. Camped with their wives and children, they were set upon by tanks, four troops of cavalry with drawn swords, and steel-helmeted infantry with fixed bayonets—all led by MacArthur. He argued that his actions narrowly prevented a Communist revolution. This would not be the last time MacArthur would favor extreme measures of force.

World War II

In 1935 MacArthur went back to military service when President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945) sent him to the Philippines to develop a defensive strategy for the islands. Only two years later, he married Jean Marie Faircloth and retired from the U.S. Army in 1937. His retirement would not last, though. With the heightening crisis in Asia, he was recalled to active duty as a lieutenant general and commander of U.S. forces in the Far East in July 1941.

Despite advance warning, the Japanese invasion of December 1941 badly defeated MacArthur's forces in the Philippines. MacArthur was determined to hold the Philippines but the situation was hopeless. He was ordered to withdraw to Australia to take command of Pacific operations. Reluctantly, MacArthur agreed, and accompanied by his wife and child he set out on a daring escape by patrol torpedo (PT) boat, a small, lightweight craft. Discouraged by the American defeat, he announced upon arrival, "I came through and I shall return."

Success in the Pacific

After the Philippine defeat, MacArthur began the long campaign to smash Japanese

military power in the Pacific during World War II. Slowed in the early months by shortages of men and supplies, MacArthur's forces eventually won major victories. Although his personal responsibility for the battles was exaggerated by the skillful news management of his staff, there can be little question of the general's success in New Guinea and in the Philippines.

In 1944 MacArthur convinced President Roosevelt that an invasion of the Philippines was necessary to ensure victory in the Pacific. In October 1944 MacArthur waded onto the invasion beach at Leyte and delivered his prepared address into a waiting microphone: "People of the Philippines: I have returned. . . . Rally to me." For MacArthur, as for millions of Americans, it was an inspiring moment, possibly even more inspiring than his acceptance of the Japanese surrender at Tokyo Bay on September 2, 1945.

With the end of World War II, President Harry Truman (1884–1972) appointed MacArthur supreme commander of the Allied powers in Japan. During this appointment, MacArthur successfully reduced Japan's military, helped restore the Japanese economy, and advanced religious freedoms and civil liberties in postwar Japan.

A new war

The outbreak of the Korean War, in which American-led forces aided South Korea in their fight against Communist North Korea, resulted in MacArthur's appointment as commander of the United Nations (UN) forces. In the first months of combat, MacArthur launched a brilliant attack at Inchon that severely hurt the North Korean armies.

MacArthur then advanced his troops to the Yalu River, the boundary between North Korea and China. Failing to consider the possibility of a Chinese attack, he assured his troops that they would be home in time for Christmas dinner. In November, however, massive Chinese armies sent the UN forces into retreat. Angered and embarrassed, MacArthur publicly called for the extension of the war to China. President Truman, who wanted to limit American involvement in the East, had repeatedly warned MacArthur not to express his own ideas of the war to the public. Truman finally relieved the general of his command in April 1951.

“Old Soldiers Never Die”

MacArthur's return to the United States was greeted by massive public expressions of support for the general and criticisms from the president. On April 19, 1951, he presented his case to a joint session of Congress, attracting a tremendous radio and television audience. His speech ended on a note that stirred millions of Americans: “I now close my military career and just fade away.”

MacArthur became more active than he had predicted. He testified at great length before the Senate Armed Services and Foreign Relations committees. Then he traveled across the country criticizing the Truman administration, insisting they had sold out Asia to communism. In December 1952 President-elect Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969) met with MacArthur to hear the general's views on ending the Korean War. MacArthur supported a peace conference that, if unsuccessful, would be followed by “the atomic bombing of enemy military concentrations and installations in North Korea.” MacArthur also called for mili-

tary action to overthrow Communist China. As a result, MacArthur was not consulted again.

MacArthur then retreated to a life of out of the public eye. A soldier to the end, he died in the army's Walter Reed Hospital on April 5, 1964. His wife, Jean, died on January 22, 2000, at the age of 101. Although controversial throughout much of his career, MacArthur is remembered as one of America's great military leaders.

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NICCOLÒ MACHIAVELLI

Born: May 3, 1469

Florence, Italy

Died: May 22, 1527

Florence, Italy

Italian statesman and author

The Italian author and statesman Niccolò Machiavelli is best known for *The Prince*, in which he voiced his political philosophy.

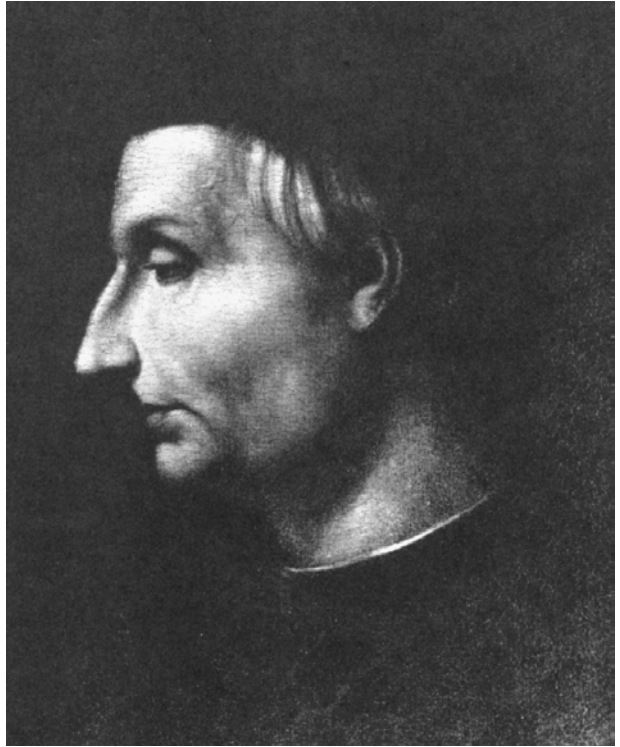
Early life

Niccolò Machiavelli was born on May 3, 1469, in Florence, Italy, of nobility, though by no means wealth. His parents, Bernardo and Bartolomea, had three other children, two daughters and a son. Bernardo was a lawyer and small landowner with a small salary. Machiavelli's education started at age seven. Some accounts say that Machiavelli spent the years from 1487 to 1495 working for a Florentine banker. A love of books was a family value that Machiavelli shared. His writings prove that he tirelessly read the classics.

In 1498 Machiavelli was named chancellor (secretary to a nobleman, prince, or king) and secretary of the second chancellery (chief executive officer) of the Florentine Republic (government in Florence whose leaders were voted for by citizens). His duties consisted chiefly of carrying out the policy decisions of others, writing diplomatic letters, reading and writing reports, and taking notes; he also went on some twenty-three diplomatic missions (formal visits by a representative of a nation to foreign countries to conduct discussions on international affairs) to foreign states. These included four trips to France and two to the court of Rome.

In 1502 Machiavelli married Marietta Corsini, who bore him four sons and two daughters. His grandson, Giovanni Ricci, is credited with saving many of Machiavelli's letters and writings.

In 1510 Machiavelli, inspired by his Roman history, was active in organizing a citizen militia (a body of citizens, who are not soldiers by career, called to duty in a national emergency) of the Florentine Republic. In August 1512 a Spanish army entered Tuscany and sacked Prato. In terror, the Florentines



Niccolò Machiavelli.

removed their leader Soderini, a man Machiavelli characterized as “good, but weak,” and allowed the Medici, a family formerly in power, to return. On November 7 Machiavelli was dismissed from his role as chancellor. Soon afterward he was arrested, imprisoned, and subjected to torture as a suspected schemer (one who plots or plans) against the Medici family. Though innocent, he remained a suspect for years to come. Unable to secure an appointment from the reinstated (reestablished) Medici, he turned to writing.

The Prince

Machiavelli had a passion for ancient history. He had a fierce desire to rebuild the gov-

ernment with a stronger political and moral foundation, similar to that of the Roman Republic (107–101 B.C.E.). He felt the biggest need of his day was a strong political and military leader who could bring together northern Italy, ridding it of French and Spanish influence. At the time that he wrote *The Prince* he pictured such a possibility while the restored Medici ruled both Florence and the papacy (system of government of the Roman Catholic Church of which the pope is the head). This hope is played out in the final chapter of *The Prince*. It is a heartfelt plea to his Medici patrons (people who support a specific cause, a person, or an establishment) to set Italy free from the “barbarians.” It closes with a quotation from Petrarch’s patriotic poem *Italia mia*: “Virtue will take arms against fury [anger], and the battle will be brief; for the ancient valor [courage] in Italian hearts is not yet dead.” No one listened to this plea in 1513, but it was to play a role three centuries later in the Risorgimento (a movement for Italian unification).

The chapters of *The Prince* are written in a clear and straightforward style. Earlier political writers had treated politics as a branch of morals. Machiavelli broke with this long tradition and treated politics on its own. Machiavellian politics described the world as it was, rather than what people imagined or were taught to believe. This was a big change in tradition.

Abandoning the Christian view of history as guided by God, Machiavelli viewed events in purely human terms. Often it is fortune that gives—or takes away—the political leader’s opportunity for significant (important and meaningful) action. Like others in the Renaissance, Machiavelli believed that

man had the ability to control his own fate. This was the opposite of the Middle Ages’ (period in Western European history that started with the end of the Roman empire and continued to the fifteenth century) concept of an all-powerful divine will (a higher soul or spirit that controls the destinies and actions of all) or the ancient Greeks’ crushing fate (inescapable downfall). Machiavelli’s *virtù* (artistry) in politics—unlike Christian virtue—is a useful combination of force and level-headedness.

Serious critics of Machiavelli sometimes forget that he attempted to describe rather than to invent the rules of political success. For him the state was greater than its citizens and their individual interests; its health consisted in unity, but even at its height its lifetime was expected to end at some point.

Other works

Certain passages in the *Discourses* (I, 11 and 12; II, 2) explained Machiavelli’s argument with the Church: by bad example, the court of Rome, Italy, had lost its devotion and religion; the Italian states were weak and divided because the Church, too weak politically to dominate them, had nevertheless prevented any one state from uniting them. He suggested that the Church might have been destroyed by its own corruption (deception and lies) had not St. Francis (c. 1182–1226) and St. Dominic (c. 1170–1221) restored it by founding new orders. However, Machiavelli gives a good comparison between the pagan (religion of many gods) religion of ancient Rome and the Christian religion.

As a historian, Machiavelli in his *History of Florence* did better than earlier historians, because he focused on the underlying causes

rather than the chain of events in the history of the Florentines from the death of Lorenzo de' Medici (1442–1492) in 1492. Medici was an Italian merchant prince who, without an official title, led the Florence government until his son took over.

Machiavelli stuck closely to his motto that a servant of government must be loyal and self-sacrificing. Nowhere did he suggest that the political morality (sense of right and wrong) of princes is a model for day-to-day dealings between ordinary citizens. His reputation as being evil and disloyal is largely undeserved; it began not long after his death. His works were banned in the first printed Index (1559). In Elizabethan England (England during Queen Elizabeth's reign, 1558–1603), Machiavelli was represented on the stage and in literature as evil. The primary source of this misrepresentation (incorrect presentation) was the translation into English by Simon Patericke in 1577 of a work popularly called *Contre-Machiavel*, which misrepresented Machiavelli and blamed his teachings for the St. Bartholomew Night massacre of 1572 (a night chosen by the Queen of Florence to rid the city of all non-Catholics). A poem by Gabriel Harvey the following year falsely blamed Machiavelli for four principal crimes: poison, murder, deception (the act of lying and cheating), and violence. Machiavelian enemies followed in works by other playwrights (writers of plays).

Machiavelli's values are represented in nineteenth-century liberalism (political philosophy based on belief in progress, the goodness of man, and individual freedom). Both Machiavelli and liberalism support government over religious power, the recruitment (the act of bringing together) of citizen

armies, the preference for a government with voting citizens and elected officials rather than a king or queen, and the ideals of honesty, work and society's responsibility overriding the lone citizen's.

Though he was unappreciated in his time and times thereafter, Machiavelli's influence lives on in the thinking of people worldwide. He died in Florence in June 1527, receiving the last rites of the Church that he had bitterly criticized.

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DOLLEY MADISON

Born: May 20, 1768

New Garden, North Carolina

Died: July 12, 1849

Washington, D.C.

American first lady

Dolley Madison was the much-admired wife of the fourth U.S. president, James Madison (1751–1836). She was highly respected by some of history's greatest politicians, including President Andrew Jackson (1767–1845), who



Dolley Madison.

Courtesy of the National Archives and Records Administration.

once described her as a “national institution.” This was high praise during a time when women were expected to remain in the background and be seen but not heard.

Life in Philadelphia

Dolley Payne Madison was born on May 20, 1768, on a farm in New Garden, North Carolina. Her parents were John Payne Jr. and Mary Coles Payne, who were Quaker Virginians. (The Quakers were a religious society that was started in the seventeenth century.)

In 1783 after the Revolutionary War (1775–83), in which the American colonies fought for independence from British rule, her parents made the decision to sell their plantation. They freed their slaves and moved the family north when Dolley was fifteen years old. Her father used the money made from selling the plantation to set up a business in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

When Dolley was nineteen years old, the representatives to the Constitutional Convention (May 25–September 17, 1787) gathered in Philadelphia. Many important representatives attended the convention, which resulted in the creation of the U.S. Constitution. George Washington (1732–1799), Alexander Hamilton (1755–1804), and Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790) were among those who attended the convention. At this time Dolley saw for the first time a Virginian named James Madison, who was later called the “Father of the Constitution.”

Family tragedy

Dolley Payne grew into a beautiful and popular woman. At the age of twenty-one she met John Todd, a lawyer, and the two were married in January 1790. The couple eventually had two sons. Then, in August 1793, an outbreak of yellow fever (a deadly disease that is spread by mosquitoes) occurred. A great number of people died, including Dolley’s husband and her youngest son. Although she also became ill, she eventually recovered after a long, slow fight.

A new life

In the spring of 1794 James Madison requested a meeting with Dolley Payne Todd. Madison was an extremely ambitious man

who was well known in Philadelphia. He helped draft the Constitution, the document that represents the basic laws on which America is founded. He also was responsible for suggesting the Bill of Rights, the first ten constitutional amendments that safeguard an individual's civil freedoms. Within a few weeks after the two met, it was widely rumored that they were engaged. Although she denied this rumor, it proved to be true, as Dolley Payne Todd and James Madison were married in September 1794.

Over the next several years, Dolley and James observed and at times were directly involved in some of the most important events in the history of the United States. In 1797 they saw John Adams inaugurated as president. In 1801 Thomas Jefferson began the first of his two terms as president. At that time, James Madison was made secretary of state. In 1803 the United States bought the Louisiana Territory from France. As a result of this purchase (the Louisiana Purchase), the United States had suddenly doubled in size.

As first lady

When Jefferson decided not to run for a third term, James Madison was elected president of the United States. Madison began his first term in 1809, and Dolley Madison became the first lady. Some say she took on the job as if she had been born to fill it. She was widely known for her caring and loving nature, her fashion sense, and her graceful manners.

In 1812 James Madison was reelected and the War of 1812 (1812–14) began. The war was fought between Great Britain and the United States over Britain's disregard for American neutrality and their practice of

boarding American ships and forcing sailors to join the British navy. On August 24, 1814, British troops moved into Washington, D.C., and Dolley Madison was told that she should leave the city. She made certain that she saved her husband's important papers, the silver, and a portrait of George Washington. Madison narrowly escaped the British, who burned the Capitol Building and set fire to the President's House.

In the following years, Madison witnessed the end of the war and James Monroe's inauguration as president. After leaving office, the Madisons moved to Montpelier, Virginia. They found peace in Virginia during their retirement years. They spent their time improving James's beloved home, where Dolley Madison would remain for the next twenty years.

James Madison's death

James Madison died in 1836. He willed his papers to Dolley Madison so that she could make some money by having them published. The Madison papers were James's writings on the many years of significant historical events. After her husband's death, Dolley Madison moved back to Washington, D.C. She then sold some of her late husband's papers to Congress and received \$30,000 for them.

In the remaining years of Madison's life, she would see four different presidents enter office, the rest of the Madison papers sold to Congress, the laying of the first stone for the Washington Monument, and the introduction of the first telegraph (an early communication system). She had led a full, active, and productive life. On July 12, 1849, Dolley Madison died in Washington, D.C.

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JAMES MADISON

Born: March 16, 1751

Port Conway, Virginia

Died: June 28, 1836

Orange County, Virginia

American president and founding father

James Madison, the fourth president of the United States, was one of the principal founders of America's republican form of government. As a Founding Father he helped plan and approve the U.S. Constitution and the Bill of Rights, two documents that laid the foundation for the American way of life.

Early life and schooling

James Madison lived all his life (except for his presidential years) in the beautiful county of Orange, Virginia, on a 5,000-acre plantation that produced tobacco and grains and was worked by perhaps one hundred slaves. After being schooled at home, Madison went to preparatory school and then to the College of New Jersey at Princeton. The young man took to his studies, which included learning Latin and Greek.

Madison was continually exposed to the Christian religion and was influenced by the new thought of the eighteenth century. He admired writers and thinkers like John Locke (1632–1704), Isaac Newton (1642–1727), Jonathan Swift (1667–1745), and others. Madison was a founding member of the American Whig Society, a debating club in Princeton. During his college career, waves of revolution rolled through the campus as protests increased against British policies.

American Revolution

Upon graduation, Madison's health was weakening and he was forced to live at home, where he continued his education. Once recovered, Madison served on the Orange County Committee of Safety for two years. By then, the American Revolution (1775–83) had erupted as American forces fought for independence from Great Britain.

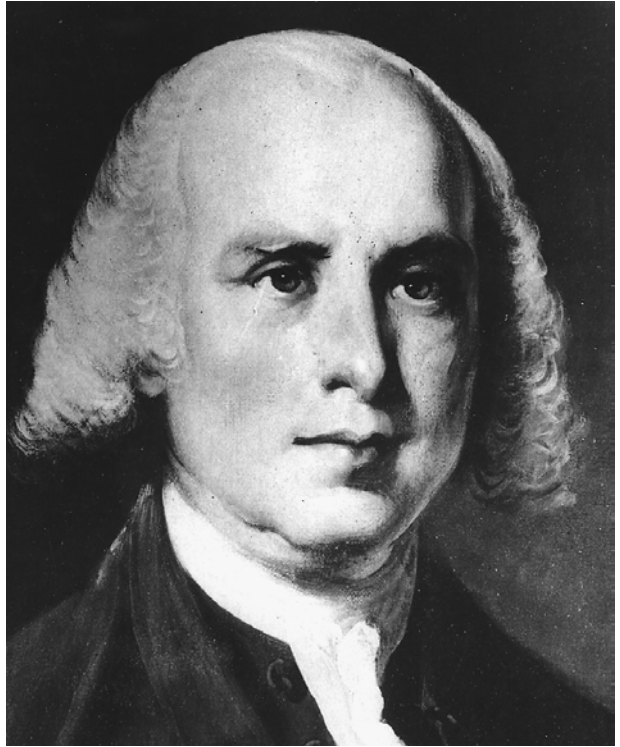
In 1776 Madison was elected to the Virginia convention. The convention decided to move for independence from Britain and drafted a new state constitution, or a body of laws that formally lay out the structure of a new government. Madison's special contribution was in strengthening the articles on reli-

gious freedom to proclaim “liberty of conscience for all.” Elected to the governor’s council in 1777, he moved to Williamsburg, Virginia. For two years he dealt with the routine problems of the Revolutionary War. He also began a lifelong friendship with Virginia governor Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826).

Madison’s skill led to his 1780 election to the Continental Congress, which brought famous delegates to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, to discuss the problems with British rule. During the first year he became one of the leaders of the so-called nationalist group. The group believed that success of the American Revolution was possible only under a strong central government. By the end of his service in 1783, the peace treaty with Britain was passed and the war ended. Madison was among the half dozen leading promoters of stronger national government and earned a reputation as a well-informed and effective leader. Madison spent three years in Virginia helping pass Jefferson’s bill for religious freedom and other reform measures.

The Constitution

In May 1787 Madison attended the Constitutional Convention, whose representatives gathered in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The convention brought together America’s leading politicians, including Benjamin Franklin (1706–1799) and John Adams (1735–1826). The convention would produce the Constitution, the document that embodies the principles on which America is founded. At the convention Madison supported the Virginia plan for giving real power to the national government. He guided George Washington (1732–1799) and other Virginia delegates to support this plan. In the



James Madison.

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end, Madison became the most constructive member of the convention.

Madison’s basic contribution was the idea that an enlarged, strengthened national government was in fact the best way to protect freedom and expand self-government. In addition to taking part in the debates, Madison took notes on them. Published after his death, these give the only full record of the convention.

Establishment of the new government

Madison shared leadership in the ratification, or passing, of the Constitution with

New York representative Alexander Hamilton (1755–1804). Madison designed a strategy for the supporters of the Constitution (the Federalists) and wrote portions of the Federalist Papers, which were essays on political theory for the new country. In a dramatic debate with Senator Patrick Henry (1736–1799), Madison helped bring about the ratification of the Constitution in June 1788. Then, as Washington's closest adviser and as a member of the first federal House of Representatives, Madison led in establishing the new government. He drafted Washington's inaugural address, or first speech as president, and helped the president during his first term.

January 1790 marked the beginning of Madison's—along with Jefferson's—leadership of what became the Democratic-Republican party. Madison opposed the privileged position Hamilton gave to commerce and wealth. This attitude became the foundation of their political party. Madison also greatly opposed Jay's Treaty, which settled differences between America and Great Britain regarding trade. Madison felt that the treaty would align the United States with England in a way that would betray the nation's principles, or standards. Thus, the final ratification of Jay's Treaty (April 1796) over Madison's bitter opposition marked his declining influence in Congress. A year later he retired to Virginia.

The political frustrations of the years 1793 to 1800 were relieved by Madison's happy marriage in 1794 to Dolley (or Dolly) Payne Todd. Dolley, a widow, was a beautiful and respected woman. Later, when Madison was elected president, she would play an important part in shaping the role of first lady.

Secretary of state

Madison worked hard to secure Jefferson's election as president in 1800, and in response he was appointed secretary of state. Madison skillfully aided the president in the Louisiana Purchase, which acquired land west of the Mississippi River from France. The purchase would nearly double the country's size and begin a push westward to expand the young nation.

The renewed war between France and Britain, however, became a major crisis, as both powers inflicted heavy damage on American ships. Madison promoted the 1807 embargo, or stoppage, which barred American ships from the high seas. However, the nation's economy was fragile and heavily dependent on trade with Europe. The embargo did not last. Madison soon accepted its repeal at the end of Jefferson's administration.

As president

Elected president in 1808, Madison continued his struggle to find peace in a world at war. Unfortunately, ineffective policies, disagreement within his party, and Cabinet restructuring would weaken Madison's power as president. After relations with England fell apart, war was declared in June 1812. Many New England preachers and politicians opposed the war, and their lack of support severely slowed the war effort and added to the president's difficulties. He nonetheless was reelected easily in 1812.

Madison was hopeful for a swift victory in the new war. However, several military setbacks destroyed these hopes. When America won battles at sea in 1813, the tables seemed

to be turning. But problems mounted for the president. Chaos in American finance, problems with European allies, and another ineffective military campaign left Madison discouraged, and he suffered a nearly fatal illness in June 1813. The young government seemed to be failing apart due to the war.

The summer of 1814 brought to the American battlefields thousands of battle-hardened British troops. A small but well-disciplined British force defeated the disorganized Americans as Madison watched from a nearby hillside. His embarrassment was complete when he saw flames of the burning Capitol and White House while fleeing across the Potomac River. However, after he returned to Washington three days later, he was soon cheered by news of the British defeat in Baltimore Harbor. News also arrived that two American forces had driven back a powerful British force coming down Lake Champlain in Vermont. On Christmas Eve, 1814, a peace treaty was signed between Britain and America.

Years of retirement

In March 1817 Madison retired from public office and returned to his home in Montpelier, Virginia. During the next years, Madison practiced scientific agriculture, helped Jefferson found the University of Virginia, and advised President James Monroe (1758–1831) on foreign policy. He returned officially to public life only to take part in the Virginia constitutional convention of 1829. But his health slowly declined, forcing him more and more to be a silent observer.

By the time of his death on June 28, 1836, he was the last of the great founders of the American republic. After his death, Dol-

ley Madison published her husband's personal papers. The Madison papers offer wonderful insights into the politics of the new nation during a time of great historical significance.

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MADONNA

Born: August 16, 1958

Bay City, Michigan

American singer, dancer, and actress

Singer, dancer, and actress Madonna is a sensational self-promoter who drove herself to stardom on the pop music charts, in concert halls, on film, and in music videos.

Early life

Born on August 16, 1958, in Bay City, Michigan, Madonna Louise Veronica Ciccone



Madonna.

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was the third of six children in a Catholic family. Her father Sylvio, also known as Tony, was a design engineer for Chrysler/General Dynamics. Madonna's mother was of French Canadian descent. She died of breast cancer when Madonna was five years old. Tony Ciccone moved the family to Pontiac, Michigan, and he married one of the women hired to care for the Ciccone household. The adjustment was difficult for Madonna as the eldest daughter. She had considered herself the "lady of the house" and had received much of her father's affection and attention.

Madonna acted in school plays in her early school years. As a teenager she discov-

ered her love and talent for dancing, an activity she pursued under the direction and leadership of Christopher Flynn, her private ballet instructor. Madonna worked hard and played hard as well, something Flynn made easy by introducing her to the disco nightlife of Detroit, Michigan. Still, she cared for her younger brothers and sisters and worked hard in school. She graduated early from high school and was awarded a dance scholarship to the University of Michigan. She stayed two years before going to New York City in 1978 with thirty-seven dollars and a wealth of determination and ambition.

Pop music breakthrough

Madonna moved into an apartment in New York City's East Village, a poorer neighborhood filled with crime and drug problems. Her first jobs included figure modeling for artists and acting in low-budget movies. She danced briefly with the Alvin Ailey American Dance Theater and studied for a time with choreographer (one who creates and arranges dance performances) Pearl Lang before going to Paris, France, as a singer and dancer with French disco artist Patrick Hernandez. Madonna had developed a fascination with music. She played drums and sang backup in several small bands. When she returned to New York she wrote and recorded songs and hung out in popular Manhattan nightclubs. She was signed to a recording contract with Sire Records in October 1982.

The album *Madonna* was released in July 1983. Repeat club performances and radio airplay of several cuts from the album eventually earned her three huge hits with "Holiday," "Lucky Star," and "Borderline." A series of hit

songs, videos, concert tours, and films followed. A brief performance in the film *Vision Quest* resulted in the top-five hit “Crazy for You.” Her second album, *Like a Virgin*, released in 1984, produced two number one hits—the title track and “Material Girl.” In early 1985 she went on her first concert tour, which was so successful that she had to switch to larger locations to meet the demand for tickets. Thousands of teenage girls all over the country began tying lace bows on top of their heads, wearing underwear as outerwear, and walking the halls of schools and shopping malls as “Madonna wannabees.” Madonna’s appearance in the film *Desperately Seeking Susan* in 1985 led to another popular single and video, “In the Groove.”

Increasing popularity and criticism

Madonna married actor Sean Penn in 1985. In 1986 she released her third album, *True Blue*, from which three singles topped the charts: “Papa Don’t Preach,” “True Blue,” and “Live to Tell,” which also appeared in *At Close Range*, a film starring Penn. In 1987 a movie starring Madonna called *Who’s That Girl* was largely ignored, but the accompanying soundtrack and concert tour were successful.

The release of Madonna’s album *Like a Prayer* (1989) came at the same time as the breakup of her marriage. The video of the title song, showing Madonna confessing to a priest and then engaging in suggestive behavior with him, caused a stir in the Catholic Church. The controversy (dispute) resulted in a disagreement over a five million dollar endorsement (paid public support of a company’s products) contract with the Pepsi company. Controversy again surrounded Madonna in 1990 when the music video channel MTV refused to play the

racy video for “Justify My Love,” a new track from her greatest hits album *The Immaculate Collection*, before 11:00 P.M.

Other films featuring Madonna include *Shanghai Surprise* (1986), in which she co-starred with then-husband Sean Penn; *Dick Tracy* (1989), which was accompanied by a soundtrack of Madonna songs; and *Truth or Dare*, a feature-length collection of footage from her Blonde Ambition Tour of 1990–91. Madonna also appeared in *A League of Their Own* (1992) and *Body of Evidence* (1993). Each work kept the press and critics focused on her.

Money machine

By 1992 Madonna’s popularity stretched across the world, and she had established herself as a sharp, confident businesswoman. She signed a sixty million dollar contract with Time-Warner, which included her own record company (under the Maverick label) and called for her to make videos, films, books, merchandise, and more than six albums. The announcement of the deal was timed with the release of the album *Erotica*, an extended video, and an adults-only picture book called *Sex*, featuring black-and-white photographs in which Madonna appears mostly without clothes with everything from men and women (in all combinations, positions, and numbers) to chairs, dogs, and slices of pizza. She was even shown hitchhiking wearing nothing but high heels. The book was a best-seller across the country.

The 1994 release of *Bedtime Stories*, written mainly by Madonna, showed her with a softer image and more soulful sound. In the mid-1990s she set her sights on playing the leading role in Andrew Lloyd Webber’s

(1948–) movie musical *Evita*, and after repeated tryouts, she convinced producers that she would bring a unique understanding to the lead role of Argentine leader Eva Peron (1919–1952). In her personal life, Madonna settled into a relationship with Carlos Leon, a personal trainer. In 1995 she released her second greatest hits album, *Something to Remember*.

In 1996 Madonna gave birth to a girl named Lourdes Maria Ciccone Leon (Lola for short). Madonna described the event to *People* magazine as “the greatest miracle of my life.” She even traded in her pink Hollywood mansion for a home in a low-key suburb of Los Angeles, California. Meanwhile, her determination to play the starring role in *Evita* paid off, although her performance received mixed reviews. In 1997 the song “You Must Love Me” from the film’s soundtrack won the Academy Award for best song.

Balancing work and family

In 1998 Madonna released *Ray of Light*. The album reflected her study of the kabbalah (an ancient Jewish teaching) and interest in Far East Indian culture. Its electronic influence also kept Madonna in touch with modern dance culture, proving to critics that she still knew how to stay ahead of the pack. The album received rave reviews and was one of her best-selling records. It also won Grammy Awards for best dance recording, best pop album, and best music video (short form).

That next year, Madonna contributed the single “Beautiful Stranger” to the *Austin Powers: The Spy Who Shagged Me* soundtrack. The single won a Grammy Award for best song written for a motion picture, television or other visual media. Madonna co-starred in

the film *The Next Best Thing* in 2000. While the film got poor reviews, the soundtrack did moderately well. It contained two new Madonna songs, “American Pie” (a remake of the Don McLean classic) and “Time Stood Still.” It was Madonna’s first record for which she was the executive producer.

In August 2000 Madonna gave birth to a son named Rocco. The child was her son with British film director Guy Ritchie. Shortly after that event, Madonna released *Music*, which carried on the electronic element she introduced in *Ray of Light*. The album received mostly good reviews. In December 2000 Madonna and Ritchie had their son baptized in a thirteenth-century cathedral in Dornoch, Scotland. The next day, Madonna and Ritchie were married at Scotland’s nineteenth-century Skibo Castle.

Madonna, the Material Girl turned serious actress, singer, songwriter and mom, appears to have it all. She accepts it all—including the constant media attention—with calm, as if she were planning the next phase. She told *Time* magazine, “I never wish I had a different life. I am lucky to be in the position of power that I am in and to be intelligent.... It’s not my nature to just kick back.”

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FERDINAND MAGELLAN

Born: 1480

Oporto, Portugal

Died: April 27, 1521

Cebu, Philippines

Portuguese explorer

While in the service of Spain, the Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan led the first European voyage of discovery to circumnavigate (travel around) the globe. His voyage provided clear proof that the Earth is round.

Early life and travels

Ferdinand Magellan was born in Oporto, Portugal, in 1480. His parents were members of the Portuguese nobility, and the young Magellan found himself in the service of royalty at an early age. He was only twelve when he began serving the queen of Portugal as a page, a position of employment for youths in royal courts. As a young member of Queen Leonora's School of Pages in Lisbon (the Portuguese capital) Magellan was encouraged to learn subjects that would aid him greatly later, such as cartography (mapmaking), astronomy, and celestial navigation (learning how to steer a ship based on the positions of the stars).

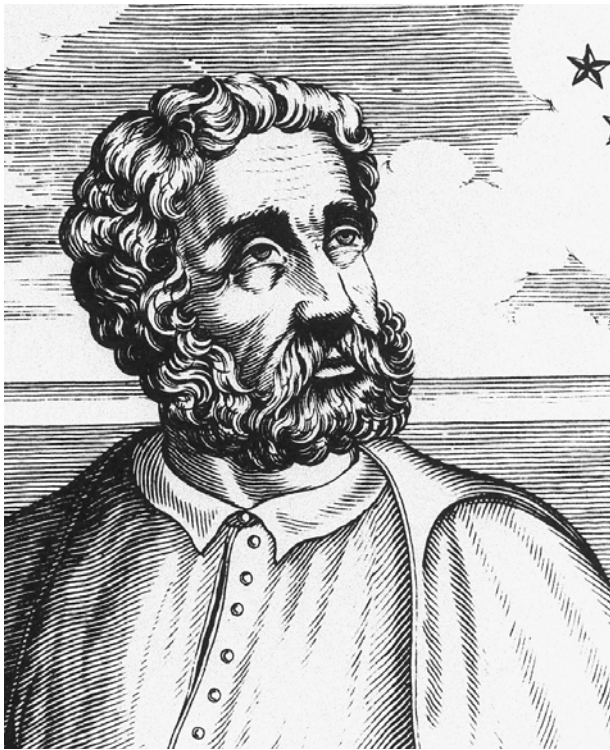
Magellan joined the Portuguese service to sail with the fleet in 1505. He went to East Africa and later was at the battle of Diu, in which the Portuguese destroyed the Egyptian fleet's dominance in the Arabian Sea. He went twice to Malacca, located in present-day Malaysia, and participated in that port's con-

quest (the act of conquering) by the Portuguese. It is possible that he also went on a mission to explore the Moluccas (islands in Indonesia, then called the Spice Islands). Trading in spices brought great wealth to European nations at this time, and there was much competition among them to claim territories that were rich in spices, especially in Southeast Asia, called the East Indies. The Moluccas were the original source of some of the world's most valuable spices at that time, including cloves and nutmeg.

In 1513 Magellan was wounded in a battle in North Africa. But all of his services to Portugal brought him little favor from the Portuguese king, and in 1517 he went to Seville, Spain, to offer his services to the Spanish court.

Exploring for Spain

Spain and Portugal were both great powers at this time. They were in great competition over the rights to claim and settle the newly "discovered" regions of the Americas and the East. In 1494 the Treaty of Tordesillas divided the overseas world of the "discoveries" between the two powers, essentially splitting the globe in half from pole to pole. Portugal acquired everything from Brazil eastward to the East Indies, while the Spanish hemisphere (half-globe) of discovery and conquest ran westward from Brazil to an area near the Cape Verde Islands. The parts of this area that lay furthest east of Spain had not yet been explored by the Spaniards, and they assumed that some of the Spice Islands might lie within their half of the globe. They were wrong, but Magellan's scheme was to test that assumption. He decided that the best way to reach these islands was to sail in a westward



Ferdinand Magellan.

direction from Europe, thus traveling around the globe.

Other explorers had paved the way for Magellan by making key mistakes and discoveries. Christopher Columbus (1451–1506) had badly underestimated the distance between Europe and the East Indies, sailing westward from the European coast and “discovering” North America and the Caribbean islands (West Indies). Vasco Núñez de Balboa’s (1475–1517) march across the Panamanian isthmus had revealed the existence of the Pacific Ocean, which he had claimed for Spain. Thereafter, explorers eagerly sought northern and southern all-water passages

across the Americas to reach the spice-rich East. Magellan also sought such a passage.

Magellan’s great voyage

King Charles V (1500–1558) of Spain approved Magellan’s proposal, and on September 20, 1519, Magellan led a fleet of five ships out into the Atlantic. Unfortunately, the ships—the *San Antonio*, *Trinidad*, *Concepción*, *Victoria*, and *Santiago*—were barely adequate to sail, and the crew were not all firmly loyal to their leader. With Magellan went his brother-in-law, Duarte Barbosa, and the loyal and able commander of the *Santiago*, João Serrão. Arriving at Brazil, the fleet sailed down the South American coast to the San Julián bay in the region called Patagonia. They stayed there from March to August 1520. During this time an attempted mutiny was put down, with only the top leaders being punished. Afterwards, however, the *Santiago* was wrecked, and its crew had to be taken aboard the other vessels.

Leaving San Julián, the fleet sailed southward. On October 21, 1520, it entered what is now called the Strait of Magellan (the channel of water between the southern tip of South America and the island of Tierra del Fuego). The fleet proceeded cautiously, taking over a month to pass through the strait. During this time the master of the *San Antonio* deserted and sailed back to Spain, and so only three of the original five ships entered the Pacific on November 28. A long voyage northward through the Pacific followed, and it was only on March 6, 1521, that the fleet finally anchored at Guam.

Magellan then headed eastward to Cebu in the Philippines, where, in an effort to gain the favor of a local ruler, he became involved in a local war and was killed in battle on April

27, 1521. Barbosa and Serrão were killed soon afterwards. The remaining crew were forced to destroy the *Concepción*, and the great circumnavigation was completed by a courageous former mutineer, Juan Sebastián del Cano. Commanding the *Victoria*, he picked up a small cargo of spices in the Moluccas, crossed the Indian Ocean, and traveled around the Cape of Good Hope (at the southern tip of Africa) from the east. He finally reached Seville on September 8, 1522. In the meantime, the *Trinidad* had tried to head back across the Pacific to Panama but was finally forced back to the Moluccas. There its crew was jailed by the Portuguese, and only four men later returned to Spain.

Magellan's legacy

Magellan's project brought little in the way of material gain to Spain. The Portuguese were well established in the East. Their route to the east, by way of Africa, had proved to be the only practical way of getting by sea to India and the Spice Islands. Yet despite nearly destroying itself in the process, the Magellan fleet for the first time revealed in a practical fashion the full extent of the globe. As a scientific effort, it proved to be the greatest of all the "conquests" undertaken by the overseas adventurers of fifteenth- and sixteenth-century Europe.

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NAJIB MAHFUZ

Born: December 12, 1912

Cairo, Egypt

Egyptian novelist

Najib Mahfuz is Egypt's most famous novelist and the first Arab to win the Nobel Prize in Literature.

Early life

Najib Mahfuz was born in Cairo, Egypt, on December 12, 1912. He was the youngest of seven children in a middle-class merchant family. When he was ten years old, his family moved to a more Westernized (reflecting the ideals of Europe and the United States) neighborhood of Cairo. Mahfuz became fond of reading detective stories, going to the movies, playing soccer, and listening to music with his friends. During his high school years he began to read the Arabic classics as well as the Western ones that he could find in translation.

Mahfuz studied philosophy (the study of the universe and man's place in it) at Cairo University, and after graduating in 1934 he began working as a civil servant (a person who works for the government). He contin-



Najib Mahfuz.

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ued to work until he retired as director of the Cinema Organization, after which he worked as an adviser to several cultural organizations within the Egyptian government. Mahfuz made frequent contributions to the daily newspaper *Al-Ahram*, where most of his writings appeared in serial form before being published in book form. He was married in his early forties and is the father of two daughters.

Develops as writer

Mahfuz's early writings are considered historical because he dealt with subjects inspired by ancient Egyptian history. In an

interview with the magazine *Al-Hawadess*, Mahfuz corrected this notion by saying that only one of the early three works—*Kifah Tiba* (The Struggle for Thebes, 1944)—was a true historical novel. With *Al-Qahira Al-Jadida* (New Cairo, 1945), Mahfuz then began a series of novels that dealt with more contemporary (current) subject matter and characters. Most of the novels after these bear names of the old-time areas of Cairo, such as *Khan Al-Khalil* (1946) and *Zuqaq al-Midaq* (1947).

Mahfuz's trilogy (series of three dramas), *Al-Thulathia* (made up of *Bayn al-Qasrayn*, *Qasr al-Shauq*, and *Al-Sukkariyya*), written between 1946 and 1952, traces the changes undergone by a family in Cairo and its leader, Ahmad Abd a-Jawad. Through his characters, Mahfuz skillfully describes the cultural and political problems that Egypt experienced in the early 1900s. *Al-Thulathia* was considered a major contribution to world literature and a unique contribution of Egyptian genius. It was awarded Egypt's highest literary honor in 1957.

In *Awlad Haritna* (Sons of Our Alley, 1967), Mahfuz questioned the relationship between God and man, good and evil, and life and death. His interest in the differences between *'ilm* (knowledge) and *iman* (faith) appears throughout his later writings, such as *Alf Layla wa Layla* (A Thousand and One Nights, 1982). *Al'Ai'sh fi al-Hakika* (He Who Lives in Truth, 1985) was considered more of a historical novel than fictional writing.

Offends Muslim leaders

Mahfuz's novels have often gotten him into trouble with Arab leaders. *The Children of Gabalawi* (1959) was banned in Egypt because it was seen as offensive to the Islamic faith. In

the 1960s several of his novels were considered attacks on the administration of President Gamal Nasser (1918–1970). Because of Mahfuz's support for Egyptian President Anwar Sadat's (1918–1981) peace treaty with Israel in 1979, his writings were banned in many Arab countries during the 1980's, although most of the bans were later lifted.

In Mahfuz's Egypt, where literacy (the ability to read and write) is still not widespread, radio, movies, and television play a large role in education and entertainment. Many of Mahfuz's writings have been adapted to the screen and stage. This enabled him to become widely known and admired throughout the Arab world. In October 1988 Mahfuz was awarded the Nobel Prize in literature, the first Arab writer to be so honored. Asked about his plans for spending the \$300,000 prize money, the *New York Times* reported that he looked at his spouse and replied, "That is my wife's job."

It surprised many when, in a 1992 interview with the *Paris Review*, Mahfuz criticized fellow author Salman Rushdie (1947–), whose novel *The Satanic Verses* had led to the offer of a million-dollar reward for Rushdie's death by Iran's religious leader, the Ayatollah Khomeini (1900–1989). In 1994 a Muslim extremist (one who holds extreme political or religious views) stabbed Mahfuz. The attack damaged nerves in Mahfuz's arm. Mahfuz was a vocal critic of the September 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States, although he also stated that war was not a solution to the problem of terrorism.

In 2002 it was announced that a statue of Mahfuz would be built in west Cairo to honor his achievements. Although Mahfuz continues to write, his failing eyesight and

problems with his arm have caused him to restrict himself to mostly shorter pieces, such as a series of descriptions of his dreams that have been published in Egypt's *Nisf Al-Dunia* magazine.

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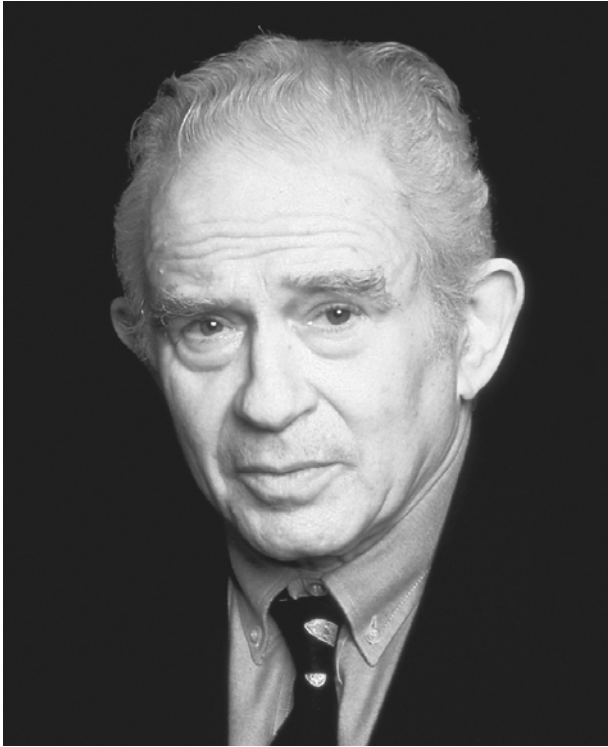
NORMAN MAILER

Born: January 31, 1923

Long Branch, New Jersey

American author and director

Norman Mailer, American author, film producer, and director, wrote *The Naked and the Dead*, one of the most famous American novels about World War II (1939–45; a war in which Germany, Italy, and Japan fought against Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). Only in his later political journalism did he reach that level of achievement again.



Norman Mailer.

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Early life and education

Norman Kingsley Mailer was born in Long Branch, New Jersey, on January 31, 1923, the son of Isaac Barnett Mailer and Fanny Schneider Mailer. His father, an accountant, was originally from South Africa, having traveled to America by way of England. His mother's father was a rabbi (a leader of the Jewish religion). Mailer's family moved to Brooklyn, New York, when he was four. Mailer was an excellent student who loved to build model airplanes. At nine years old his mother encouraged him to write a story. Writing one chapter a day, the young Mailer completed a story that he called "An Invasion of Mars."

Mailer graduated from high school in 1939 and earned a bachelor of science degree in aeronautical (dealing with flight) engineering from Harvard University in Massachusetts. He won a college fiction contest, wrote for the *Harvard Advocate*, worked on two (unpublished) novels, and had a novella (longer than a short story, but shorter than a novel) published. Drafted into the army in 1944, he served in the Philippines in an infantry unit (a group of soldiers on foot) as both a clerk and a rifleman.

Writes popular war novel

In the army Mailer knew he was living the material for his third novel. From notes in letters to his wife, he composed a brilliant narrative around an army unit's taking of a Japanese-held Pacific island. Borrowing the natural writing style of writers such as John Dos Passos (1896–1970) and James Farrell (1904–1979), the use of symbols from Herman Melville (1819–1891), and the journalist's observations from Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961), Mailer described (in language that offended many) the war and the inner conflicts of American fighting men. Mailer insisted that *The Naked and the Dead* (1948) was not written about a specific war but of "death and man's creative urge, fate, man's desire to conquer the elements." The work was a popular success and won him critical praise.

After attending the Sorbonne in Paris, France (part of the University of Paris), Mailer returned to the United States in the mid-1950s and helped found the New York newspaper the *Village Voice*. His next novel, *Barbary Shore* (1951), is set in a Brooklyn rooming house and contains complaints

about the government of the United States. *The Deer Park* (1955), both the novel and the play Mailer adapted it from, focuses on two of Mailer's most memorable characters, Sergius O'Shaugnessy, former Air Force pilot, and Elena Esposito, broken-down dancer and actress. *An American Dream* (1965) shows Steve Rojack, trapped in an urban (city-based) nightmare of sex, murder, and despair, escaping with what remains of his soul to the jungles of Yucatán, Mexico. *Why Are We in Vietnam?* (1967), one of Mailer's least popular works, takes its eighteen-year-old hero on an Alaskan hunting trip that ends with his initiation into manhood. These books voiced Mailer's view of the problems that lay beneath the surface of American life.

Changes to nonfiction

Mailer began a second career in the mid-1950s as an essayist and journalist. He became a national personality with the publication of *Advertisements for Myself* (1959), a collection of earlier writings that included bitter attacks, personal interviews, cultural essays, stories, works in progress, and confessions of how Mailer reached the depths of his own state and found a "new consciousness" (awareness).

Although the 1960s were a time of personal conflict and public rebellion for Mailer, he wrote many works during that period that helped establish him as a leading writer of nonfiction. *The Presidential Papers* (1963) presented criticism of American politics and society that introduced a new Mailer, a public historian of the years when John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) was president. This work, along with *Cannibals and Christians* (1966), attempted to establish him as "self-appointed master of the Now." *The Prisoner of Sex*

(1971) contained a discussion of Mailer's various sexual relationships.

The peace march on Washington, D.C., in 1967 and the presidential conventions of 1968 gave Mailer some of his best material. Mailer, a skilled reporter, turned his notes into "non-fictional novels" using the style of New Journalism, in which real events are described with the addition of writing devices such as narrative, dialogue, and multiple points of view. The Washington experience became *The Armies of the Night: History as a Novel, the Novel as History* (1968), for which Mailer received a National Book Award and a Pulitzer Prize. The political conventions shaped *Miami and the Siege of Chicago* (1968). These works reflect Mailer's personality and controversial (causing dispute) opinions on historic events, creating sharp descriptions of the conflict between individual and collective power. Other works using New Journalism methods include *Of a Fire on the Moon* (1971), *The Executioner's Song* (1979), and *Harlot's Ghost* (1991).

In the late 1970s Mailer began receiving letters from a prisoner named Jack Henry Abbott, whom Mailer began to consider a promising writer. Mailer helped Abbott publish a book of letters, *In the Belly of the Beast* (1981), wrote the book's introduction, and spoke up on behalf of Abbott, helping him get released from prison in 1981. Two weeks later Abbott stabbed a man to death and went back to prison. Mailer was criticized for not recognizing Abbott's violent nature. (Abbott hung himself in prison in 2002.)

Later works

In 1987 Mailer directed his first film, *Tough Guys Don't Dance*. During the 1990s Mailer again turned his attention to biograph-

ical essays and novels. *Portrait of Picasso As A Young Man* (1995) and *Oswald's Tale: An American Mystery* (1995) received poor reviews. Many critics felt that Mailer had used questionable new sources for subjects whose lives had already been examined. Among the theories Mailer presents is that violence and death are at the heart of Pablo Picasso's (1881–1973) Cubism (art based on geometry, or the study of points, lines, and surfaces) period.

Not one to avoid challenging subjects, Mailer chose to write a novel about Jesus Christ in 1997. As noted in the *New York Times Book Review*, Mailer wrote not merely of Jesus's life, but a modern-day Gospel, *The Gospel According to the Son*, using the voice of Jesus Himself—a choice avoided by all surviving ancient Gospels and by almost all modern novelists. Still, as in many of his other works, critics pointed to “rare powerful moments of invention” and gave Mailer credit for his knowledge of religious texts.

Mailer continued observing and commenting on major social and political issues throughout the 1990s, often interviewing people whose ideas opposed his, such as the conservative (preferring traditions and opposed to change) politician and newscaster Patrick Buchanan (1938–). In 2002 Mailer appeared as Ernest Hemingway in several performances of a dramatic reading called “Zelda, Scott, and Ernest,” based on the friendship among Hemingway, the writer F. Scott Fitzgerald (1896–1940), and Fitzgerald's wife Zelda. “It's as close as I'll ever get to Hemingway,” Mailer told the *Washington Post*.

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BERNARD MALAMUD

Born: April 26, 1914

Brooklyn, New York

Died: March 18, 1986

New York, New York

American author

Bernard Malamud is considered one of the most prominent figures in Jewish American literature, a movement that began in the 1930s and is known for its combination of tragic and comic elements.

Early life

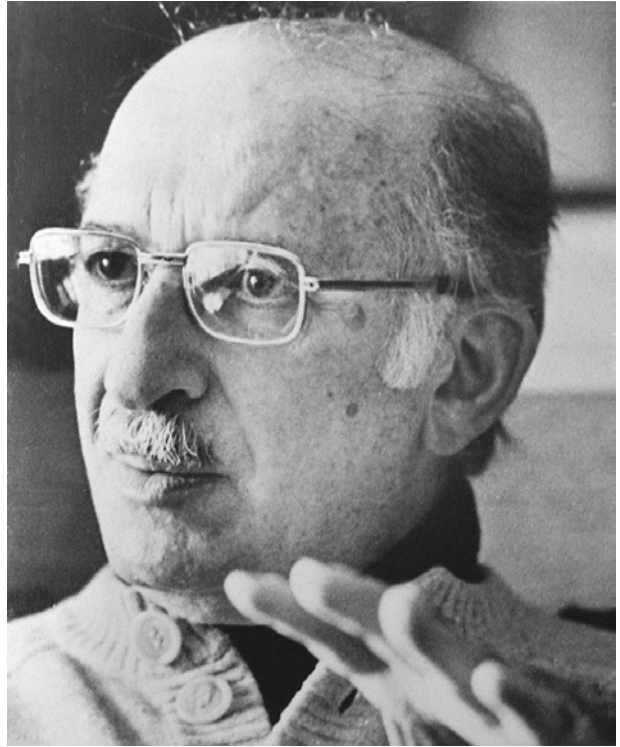
Bernard Malamud was born on April 26, 1914, in Brooklyn, New York, the first of Max and Bertha Fidelman Malamud's two sons. His parents, whom he described as “gentle, honest, kindly people,” had come to the United States from Russia in the early 1900s and ran their own grocery store. They were not highly educated and knew very little

about literature or the arts. "There were no books that I remember in the house, no records, music, pictures on the wall," Malamud said. Malamud liked to read and to attend a local Yiddish (the language spoken by Jews in Europe) theater. He began to try to write stories of his own.

Malamud attended high school in Brooklyn and received his bachelor's degree from the City College of New York in 1936. After graduation he worked in a factory and as a clerk at the Census Bureau in Washington, D.C. Although he wrote in his spare time, Malamud did not begin writing seriously until hearing of the horrors of the Holocaust, when the Germans, led by Adolf Hitler (1889–1945), put six million Jewish people to death during World War II (1939–45; a war in which Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States battled Germany, Italy, and Japan). Malamud also began reading about Jewish tradition and history. In 1949 he started teaching at Oregon State University. He left this post in 1961 to teach creative writing at Bennington College in Vermont, where he remained until shortly before his death.

First works

Malamud's first novel, *The Natural* (1952), traces the life of Roy Hobbs, an American baseball player. The book has mythic elements and explores such themes as initiation and isolation. Malamud's second novel, *The Assistant* (1957), tells the story of Morris Bober, a Jewish immigrant who owns a grocery store in Brooklyn. Although he is struggling to make ends meet, Bober hires an anti-Semitic (prejudiced against Jewish people) youth, whom he learns is homeless and



Bernard Malamud.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

on the verge of starvation. This novel shows the value of maintaining faith in the goodness of the human soul. Malamud's first collection of short stories, *The Magic Barrel* (1958), was awarded the National Book Award in 1959. Many of Malamud's best-known short stories were republished in *The Stories of Bernard Malamud* in 1983.

A New Life (1961), considered one of Malamud's most true-to-life novels, is based in part on Malamud's teaching career at Oregon State University. This work focuses on an ex-alcoholic Jew from New York City who becomes a professor at a college in the Pacific Northwest. It examines the main character's

search for self-respect, while poking fun at life at a learning institution. Malamud's next novel, *The Fixer* (1966), is one of his most powerful works. The winner of both the Pulitzer Prize and the National Book Award, this book is based on the historical account of Mendel Beiliss, a Russian Jew who was accused of murdering a Christian child. With *The Tenants* (1971), Malamud returns to a New York City setting in a contrast between two writers—one Jewish and the other African American—struggling to survive in an urban ghetto (the run-down part of a city).

Later years

In *Dubin's Lives* (1979), which took Malamud over five years to write, the main character, William Dubin, attempts to create a sense of worth for himself, both as a man and as a writer. Malamud's last finished novel, *God's Grace* (1982), studies both the original Holocaust and a new, imagined Holocaust of the future. The novel is a wild, at times brilliant, at times confusing, description of a flood similar to that in the Bible story of Noah's ark.

Malamud continued to place stories in top American magazines. Mervyn Rothstein reported in the *New York Times* that Malamud said at the end of his life, "With me, it's story, story, story." In Malamud's next-to-last collection, *Rembrandt's Hat*, only one story, "The Silver Crown," deals with Jewish themes.

Malamud's final, unfinished work, "The Tribe," concerns the adventures of a Russian Jewish peddler, Yozip, among the western Native American Indians. Malamud gave few interviews, but those he did grant provided the best insight into his work, as when he told Michiko Kakutani in the *New York Times*:

"People say I write so much about misery, but you write about what you write best." Bernard Malamud died on March 18, 1986.

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MALCOLM X

Born: May 19, 1925

Omaha, Nebraska

Died: February 21, 1965

New York, New York

African American civil rights leader

African American civil rights leader Malcolm X was a major twentieth-century spokesman for black nationalism. Unlike many other African American leaders of this time, who supported nonviolent methods, Malcolm X believed in using more aggressive measures in the fight for civil rights.

As a boy

Malcolm X was born Malcolm Little on May 19, 1925, in Omaha, Nebraska. His father, a Baptist minister, was an outspoken

follower of Marcus Garvey (1887–1940), the black nationalist leader. (A nationalist is a person who promotes one nation's culture and interests over all others.) Garvey supported a "back-to-Africa" movement for African Americans. During Malcolm's early years, his family moved several times because of racism (dislike and poor treatment of people based on their race). They moved from Omaha, Nebraska, after being threatened by the Ku Klux Klan, a group that believes that white people are superior to all other races. While living in an all-white neighborhood in Michigan their house was burned. When Malcolm was six years old, his father was mysteriously murdered. The black community was convinced that white people had committed the crime. Three of Malcolm's four uncles were also murdered by white people.

By the 1930s the nation had fallen into the Great Depression, a decade-long period of great economic hardship. Work was scarce, and Malcolm's family struggled. For a time his mother and her eight children lived on public welfare. When his mother became mentally ill, Malcolm was sent to a foster home. His mother remained in a mental institution for about twenty-six years. The children were divided among several families, and Malcolm lived in various state institutions and boardinghouses. At thirteen Malcolm was charged with delinquency (behaving in a way that is against the law) and was sent to a juvenile detention home (a place where young people are held in custody). He dropped out of school at the age of fifteen.

A criminal life

Living with his sister in Boston, Massachusetts, Malcolm worked as a shoeshine

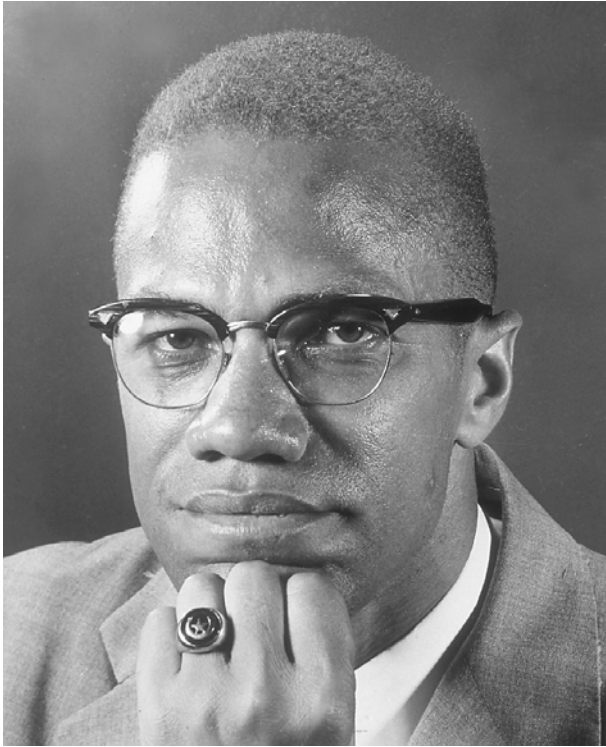
boy, a busboy, and a waiter. In Boston Malcolm began visiting the black ghetto (an area of a city where a minority lives) of Roxbury. There, he was drawn to the neighborhood's street life. He began wearing flashy clothing and jumped into a criminal life that included gambling, selling drugs, and burglary.

In 1942 Malcolm moved to New York City's Harlem neighborhood where he continued his unlawful lifestyle. He adapted well to the New York City street life and rose quickly in the criminal world. Malcolm became known as Detroit Red, for his red shock of hair. When the police uncovered his criminal activities, Malcolm returned to Boston.

Reformed in prison

In 1946, at the age of twenty, Malcolm was sentenced to ten years in prison for burglary. While in prison he began to transform his life. He began reading books on history, philosophy, and religion. In prison his brother Reginald visited him and told Malcolm about the Black Muslims. The Black Muslims were an Islamic religious organization whose official name was the Lost-Found Nation of Islam. The leader of the group was Elijah Muhammad (1897–1975).

Malcolm began to study Muhammad's teachings and to practice the religion faithfully. These teachings taught that the white man is evil and doomed by Allah to destruction. Also, the teachings stressed that the best course for black people is to separate themselves from Western, white civilization—culturally, politically, physically, and psychologically. The Black Muslim teachings also prohibited personal habits such as smoking, drinking, and the eating of pork. In addition



Malcolm X.

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to finding his new religion while in prison, Malcolm began copying words from the dictionary and developed the vocabulary that would help him become a passionate and effective public speaker.

In 1952 Malcolm was released from prison, and he went to Chicago, Illinois, to meet Elijah Muhammad. There he was accepted into the movement and given the name of Malcolm X. Malcolm believed the "X" represented his "slave" name that was forever lost after being raised in a mainly white nation. Malcolm X became assistant minister of the Detroit Mosque, or Muslim house of worship. The following year he returned to Chicago to

study personally under Muhammad, and shortly thereafter was sent to organize a mosque in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. In 1954 he went to lead the mosque in Harlem.

The message of Malcolm X

Malcolm X soon became the most visible national spokesman for the Black Muslims. As the voice of the organization he was a speechwriter, a philosopher, and an inspiring speaker who was often quoted by the media. His debating talents against white and black opponents helped spread the movement's message.

At this time in the United States there was a major movement for racial integration, or bringing the races together in peace. However, Malcolm X and the Black Muslims were calling for racial separation. He believed that the civil rights gains made in America amounted to almost nothing. He criticized those African Americans who used nonviolent methods in order to achieve integration. Malcolm X called for self-defense in the face of white violence.

Malcolm X urged black people to give up the Christian religion. He preached that the high crime rate in black communities was basically a result of African Americans following the lifestyle of Western, white society. During this period Malcolm X, following Elijah Muhammad, urged black people not to participate in elections. These elections, the movement believed, meant supporting the immoral (against the ideas of right and wrong held by most people) political system of the United States.

In 1957 Malcolm X met a young student nurse, Betty Jean Sanders (1936–1997), in New York. She soon became a member of the

Black Muslims. They were married in 1958, and she became Betty Shabazz. The couple eventually had six daughters.

Losing momentum

By 1959 the Black Muslim movement had moved into the national spotlight. Racial tensions were reaching a boiling point, and white Americans grew fearful of Malcolm X and his message of black supremacy (the belief that the black race is better than all others). By 1960 Black Muslim membership had grown to more than one hundred thousand.

As the movement reached its peak, some observers felt that there were elements within the Black Muslim movement that wanted to oust Malcolm X, or force him from office. There were rumors that he was planning to take over leadership from Elijah Muhammad and that he wanted to make the organization political. Others felt that the personal jealousy of some Black Muslim leaders was a factor.

On December 1, 1963, Malcolm X stated that he saw President John F. Kennedy's assassination as a case of "The chickens coming home to roost." Soon afterward Elijah Muhammad suspended him and ordered him not to speak for the movement for ninety days. On March 8, 1964, Malcolm X publicly announced that he was leaving the Nation of Islam. He said he was starting two new organizations: the Muslim Mosque, Inc., and the Organization of Afro-American Unity. He remained a believer in the Islamic religion.

An international focus

During the next months Malcolm X made several trips to Africa and Europe and one to Mecca, a city in Saudi Arabia that is

the holiest city of the Islamic religion. Based on these trips, he wrote that he no longer believed that all white people were evil and that he had found the true meaning of the Islamic religion. He changed his name to El-Hajj Malik El-Shabazz.

Malcolm X announced that he planned to take the black struggle to an international audience by putting black people's complaints against the United States before the United Nations (UN). For this purpose he sought aid from several African countries through the Organization of Afro-American Unity. At the same time he stated that his organizations were willing to work with other black organizations and with progressive white groups in the United States. Together, these organizations would work on voter registration, on black control of community public institutions such as schools and the police, and on other civil and political rights for black people.

Malcolm X began holding meetings in Harlem at which he discussed the policies and programs of his new organizations. Then, on a Sunday afternoon, February 21, 1965, as he began to address one such meeting, Malcolm X was assassinated.

Since his death Malcolm X's influence on the political and social thinking of African Americans has been enormous, and the literature about him has only grown. Alex Haley's 1965 book, *The Autobiography of Malcolm X*, was written from several interviews conducted with Malcolm X before he died. It is now considered a classic in African American literature. Malcolm X Community College in Chicago, Malcolm X Liberation University in Durham, North Carolina, and the Malcolm X Society are all named for him.

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DAVID MAMET

Born: November 30, 1947

Chicago, Illinois

American writer, playwright/dramatist, screenwriter, and director/producer

Playwright, screenwriter (a person who writes scripts for movies), and director David Mamet is known for his accurate use of American vernacular (the normal spoken form of a language), through which he explores the relationship between language and behavior.

Taught to love words

David Alan Mamet was born in Chicago, Illinois, on November 30, 1947, the only son

of Bernard and Leonore Mamet (they also had a younger daughter). His father was a labor lawyer who loved to argue and taught his children how to listen, question things, and express themselves as precisely as possible. Mamet spent many afternoons in his father's office, making phone calls and typing letters on the typewriter. Mamet's parents' high standards and their divorce when he was eleven made his childhood an unhappy one. He was very close to his sister, however. At fifteen he started working at the Hull House Theatre and discovered his life's direction. He went on to study literature and theater at Goddard College in Vermont (receiving a bachelor's degree in 1969) and acting at the Neighborhood Playhouse School of Theater in New York.

Successful plays

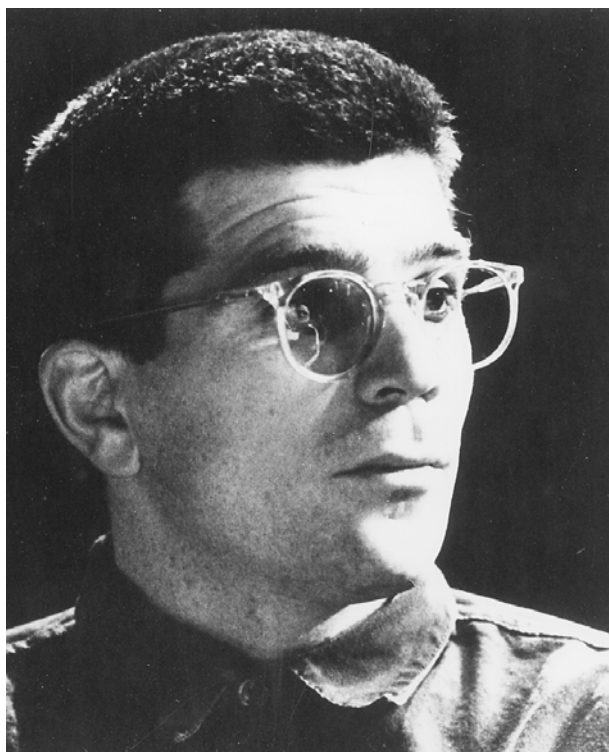
In 1971 Mamet began teaching drama at Goddard and wrote several plays. His first play to receive attention, *The Duck Variations* (1972), displays features found in much of his work: a fixed setting, few characters, a simple plot, and dialogue that captures the rhythms of everyday speech. *Sexual Perversity in Chicago* (1974) (later adapted for film as *About Last Night*. . . .) examines relationships between men and women. *American Buffalo* (1975), for which Mamet received the New York Drama Critics Circle Award, is set in a junk shop and deals with the efforts of three men trying to steal a valuable coin. The main character of *The Water Engine: An American Fable* (1977) creates a new engine but is murdered when he refuses to sell his invention for profit. Other plays from this period include *A Life in the Theatre*, *The Woods*, *Reunion*, and *Dark Pony* (all 1977), as well as *The Sanctity of Marriage* (1979).

Glengarry Glen Ross (1982), Mamet's most praised work, is the story of four Florida real estate agents competing to become their company's top salesperson by trying to cheat unsuspecting customers. The play was awarded both the New York Drama Critics Circle Award and the Pulitzer Prize in drama. *Edmond* (1982) involves a businessman who leaves his wife and wanders into a run-down area of New York City. After being beaten and robbed, he turns to violence and is imprisoned for murdering a waitress. *Prairie du chien* (1985) and *The Shawl* (1985) are companion pieces. The first play centers on an unusual murder, while the second concerns a psychic's efforts to obtain a client's inheritance. *Speed-the-Plow* (1988), in which pop singer Madonna (1958–) made her first performance on Broadway, is the story of a close male friendship that is threatened by the arrival of a strange woman.

Screenplays and other works

Mamet has also written several screenplays (scripts for movies). The first, *The Postman Always Rings Twice* (1981), is generally considered his least successful effort. In *The Verdict* (1982), based on Barry Reed's novel *Verdict* (1980), an alcoholic lawyer battles injustice to win a lawsuit for a woman who suffered brain damage during childbirth. Reviewers praised Mamet's dialogue, and the screenplay was nominated (put forward for consideration) for an Academy Award. He also made his first effort at directing with the 1987 film *House of Games* (for which he also wrote the screenplay), about a doctor's involvement with a con man.

In the latter half of the 1980s Mamet published two collections of essays, *Writing in*



David Mamet.

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Restaurants and Some Freaks. Both books are packed with Mamet's opinions on a variety of topics such as friendship, religion, politics, morals, society, and of course, the American theater. Mamet has also taught at The Yale Drama School and New York University. He often lectures to classes at the Atlantic Theater Company, and he was one of the company's founding members.

Later efforts

Mamet continues to direct films and write plays, essays, and screenplays. His recent film works include the 1994 film version of his play *Oleanna* (which was first pro-

duced on stage in 1992), *The Winslow Boy* (1999), *State and Main* (2000), and *Heist* (2001). In 1999 he wrote a book of essays, *Jafsie and John Henry. Wilson: A Consideration of the Sources*, a novel, was released in 2001. Mamet married actress Rebecca Pidgeon in 1991. They have two children. He also has two children from his first marriage to actress Lindsay Crouse.

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NELSON MANDELA

Born: 1918

Transkei, South Africa

South African president and political activist

Nelson Mandela is a South African leader who spent years in prison for opposing apartheid, the policy by which the races were separated and whites were given power over blacks in South Africa. Upon his release from prison, Man-

dela became the first president of a black-majority-ruled South Africa in which apartheid was officially ended. A symbol of hope for many, Mandela is also a former winner of the Nobel Peace Prize.

Youth and education

Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela was born in a small village in the southeastern region of South Africa called the Transkei. His father was chief of the village and a member of the royal family of the Thembu tribe, which spoke the Xhosa language. As a boy, Mandela grew up in the company of tribal elders and chiefs, which gave him a rich sense of African self-government and heritage, despite the cruel treatment of blacks in white-governed South Africa.

Mandela was also deeply influenced by his early education in Methodist church schools. The instruction he received there set Mandela on a path leading away from some African tribal traditions, such as an arranged marriage set up by a tribal elder, which he refused. After being expelled from Fort Hare University College in 1940 for leading a student strike, Mandela obtained a degree from Witwatersrand University. In 1942 he received a degree in law from the University of South Africa.

Joining the ANC

In 1944 Mandela joined the African National Congress (ANC), a South African political party. Since its founding, the ANC's main goal had been to work to improve conditions and rights for people of color in South Africa. However, its fairly conservative stance had led some members to call for less timid measures. Mandela became one of the ANC's

younger and more radical leaders as a member of the ANC's Youth League. He became president of the league in 1951.

The years between 1951 and 1960 were troubled times, both for South Africa and for the ANC. Younger antiapartheid activists (protesters), including Mandela, were coming to the view that nonviolent demonstrations against apartheid did not work, because they allowed the South African government to respond with violence against Africans. Although Mandela was ready to try every possible technique to destroy apartheid peacefully, he began to feel that nonviolent resistance would not change conditions in the end.

In 1952 Mandela's leadership of ANC protest activities led to a nine-month jail sentence. Later, in 1956, he was arrested with other ANC leaders for promoting resistance to South Africa's "pass laws" that prevented blacks from moving freely in the country. Mandela was charged with treason (a crime committed against one's country), but the charges against him and others collapsed in 1961. By this time, however, the South African government had outlawed the ANC. This move followed events at Sharpeville in 1960, when police fired on a crowd of unarmed protesters.

Sharpeville had made it clear that the days of nonviolent resistance were over. In 1961 antiapartheid leaders created a semi-underground (operating illegally) movement called the All-African National Action Council. Mandela was appointed its honorary secretary and later became head of Umkhonto weSizwe (the Spear of the Nation), a militant ANC organization which used sabotage (destruction of property and other tactics



Nelson Mandela.

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used to undermine the government) in its fight against apartheid.

Political prisoner

In 1962 Mandela was again arrested, this time for leaving South Africa illegally and for inciting strikes. He was sentenced to five years in jail. The following year he was tried with other leaders of Umkhonto weSizwe on a charge of high treason, following a government raid of the group's secret headquarters. Mandela was given a life sentence, which he began serving in the maximum security prison on South Africa's Robben Island.

During the twenty-seven years that Mandela spent in prison, his example of quiet suffering was just one of many pressures on South Africa's apartheid government. Public discussion of Mandela was illegal, and he was allowed few visitors. But as the years dragged on, he was increasingly viewed as a martyr (one who suffers for a cause) in South Africa and around the world, making him a symbol of international protests against apartheid.

In 1988 Mandela was hospitalized with an illness, and after his recovery he was returned to prison under somewhat less harsh conditions. By this time, the situation within South Africa was becoming desperate for the ruling white powers. Protest had spread, and international pressures for the end of apartheid were increasing. More and more, South Africa was isolated as a racist state. It was against this backdrop that F. W. de Klerk (1936–), the president of South Africa, finally responded to the calls from around the world to release Mandela.

Freedom

On February 11, 1990, Mandela walked out of prison. He received joyful welcomes wherever he went around the world. In 1991 he assumed the presidency of the ANC, which had been given legal status again by the government.

Both Mandela and deKlerk realized that only a compromise between whites and blacks could prevent civil war in South Africa. As a result, in late 1991, a multiparty Convention for a Democratic South Africa met to establish a new, democratic government that gave people of all colors rights to determine the country's future. Mandela and deKlerk led the negotiations, and their efforts gained them the

Nobel Peace Prize in 1993. In September 1992, the two leaders signed a document that created a freely elected constitutional assembly to draft a new constitution and to act as a transition government (a government that functions temporarily while a new government is being formed). On April 27, 1994, the first free elections open to all South African citizens were held. The ANC won over sixty-two percent of the popular vote, and Mandela was elected president.

Presidency and retirement

As president, Mandela worked to ease the dangerous political differences in his country and to build up the South African economy. To a remarkable degree he was successful in his aims. Mandela's skill at building compromise and his enormous personal authority helped him lead the transition to democracy. In an effort to help the country heal, he also backed the establishment of a Truth and Reconciliation Commission which offered amnesty (exemption from criminal prosecution) to those who had committed crimes during the apartheid era. This action helped to promote discussion about the country's history.

Mandela retired in June 1999, choosing not to challenge Thabo Mbeki, his vice president, in elections. Mbeki won the election for the ANC and was inaugurated as president on June 16, 1999. Mandela quickly took on the role of statesman after leaving office, acting that year as a mediator in the peace process in Burundi, where a civil war had led to the killing of thousands.

In late 2001, Mandela joined the outcry against terrorism when he expressed his support for the American bombing of Afghanistan after terrorist attacks against the

United States on September 11, 2001. By January 2002, however, Mandela had modified his support somewhat after South African Muslims criticized him for appearing to be insensitive to the sufferings of the Afghan people. As quoted by the Associated Press, Mandela called his earlier remarks supporting the bombings an “overstatement” and urged caution against prematurely labeling Osama bin Laden, the man suspected of plotting the attacks, as a terrorist.

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ÉDOUARD MANET

Born: January 23, 1832

Paris, France

Died: April 30, 1883

Paris, France

French painter

The works of the French painter Édouard Manet influenced many other artists; their modern subject matter and more natural, less precise style were seen as revolutionary.

Early years

Édouard Manet was born in Paris, France, on January 23, 1832, to Auguste Édouard Manet and Eugénie Désirée Manet. Manet's mother was an artistic woman who made sure that Édouard and his two brothers took piano lessons. His father, an official at the Ministry of Justice, expected his son to study law and was opposed to the idea of him becoming a painter. It was decided that Édouard would join the navy, and at the age of sixteen he sailed to Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, on a training vessel. Upon his return he failed to pass the navy's entrance examination. His father finally gave in, and in 1850 Manet began studying figure painting in the studio of Thomas Couture, where he remained until 1856. Manet also traveled abroad and made many copies of classic paintings for both foreign and French public collections.

Early works

Manet's entry for the Salon (annual public exhibition, or show) of 1859, the *Absinthe Drinker*, a romantic but daring work, was rejected. At the Salon of 1861, his *Spanish Singer*, one of a number of works of Spanish character painted in this period, not only was admitted to the Salon but won an honorable mention and the praise of the poet Théophile Gautier. This was to be Manet's last success for many years.



Édouard Manet.

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In 1863 Manet married Suzanne Leenhoff, his piano teacher. That year he showed fourteen paintings at the Martinet Gallery; one of them, *Music in the Tuileries*, caused a hostile reaction. Also in 1863 the Salon rejected Manet's large painting *Luncheon on the Grass*; its combination of clothed men and a nude woman was considered offensive. Manet elected to have it shown at the now famous Salon des Refusés, created by the Emperor to quiet complaints from the large number of painters whose work had been turned away by the official Salon. In 1865 Manet's *Olympia* produced an even more vio-

lent reaction at the official Salon, and his reputation as a rebel became widespread.

Supporters and admirers

In 1866, after the Salon jury had rejected two of Manet's works, novelist Émile Zola (1840–1902) came to his defense with a series of articles filled with strongly expressed praise. In 1867 Zola published a book that predicted, "Manet's place is destined to be in the Louvre." (The Louvre, in Paris, is the largest and most famous art museum in the world.) In May 1868 Manet, at his own expense, exhibited fifty of his works at the Paris World's Fair; he felt that his paintings had to be seen together in order to be fully understood.

Although the painters of the impressionist movement (a French art movement of the second half of the nineteenth century whose members sought in their works to represent the first impression of an object upon the viewer) were influenced by Manet during the 1860s, later it appeared that he had also learned from them. His colors became lighter, and his strokes became shorter and quicker. Still, Manet remained mainly a figure and studio painter and refused to show his works with the impressionists at their private exhibitions.

Late works

Toward the end of the 1870s Manet returned to the figures of the early years. Perhaps his greatest work was his last major one, *A Bar at the Folies-Bergère*. In 1881 Manet was admitted to membership in the Legion of Honor, an award he had long dreamed of. By then he was seriously ill, and walking became increasingly difficult for him. In his weakened

condition he found it easier to handle pastels than oils, and he produced a great many flower pieces and portraits (paintings of people, especially their faces) in that medium. In early 1883 his left leg was amputated (cut off), but this did not prolong his life. He died peacefully in Paris on April 30, 1883.

Manet was short, unusually handsome, and witty. He was remembered as kind and generous toward his friends. Still, many elements of his personality were in conflict. Although he was a revolutionary artist, he craved official honors; while he dressed fashionably, he spoke a type of slang that was at odds with his appearance and manners; and although his style of life was that of a member of the conservative (preferring to maintain traditions and resist change) classes, his political beliefs were liberal (open-minded and preferring change).

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WILMA MANKILLER

Born: November 18, 1945

Tahlequah, Oklahoma

Native American community activist, tribal chief, and tribal legislator

Wilma Mankiller was the first woman elected principal chief of the Cherokee Nation. She works to improve the lives of Native Americans by helping them receive better education and health care and urges them to preserve and take pride in their traditions.

Early life

Wilma Mankiller was born in Tahlequah, Oklahoma, the capital of the Cherokee Nation, on November 18, 1945. Her father was Charlie Mankiller, a Cherokee, and her mother was Irene Mankiller, who was of Dutch-Irish ancestry. Wilma has four sisters and six brothers. Her great-grandfather was one of the more than sixteen thousand Native Americans and African slaves who were ordered by President Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) to walk from their former homes in the Southeast to new “Indian territory” in Oklahoma in the 1830s. The harsh weather, hunger, disease, and abuse from U.S. soldiers that the walkers experienced on what came to be called the Trail of Tears led to the deaths of at least four thousand of them.

The Mankillers were very poor in Oklahoma. Charlie Mankiller thought he could make a better life for them in California and accepted a government offer to relocate. However, promises that were made to the family were not kept, money did not arrive, and there was often no employment available, so their life did not improve after their arrival in San Francisco. The children were also homesick. As Mankiller recalled in her autobiography, called *Mankiller: A Chief and Her People*, “I experienced my own Trail of Tears when I was a young girl. No one pointed a gun at me or at



Wilma Mankiller.

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members of my family. No show of force was used. It was not necessary. Nevertheless, the United States government, through the Bureau of Indian Affairs, was again trying to settle the 'Indian problem' by removal. I learned through this ordeal about the fear and anguish that occur when you give up your home, your community, and everything you have ever known to move far away to a strange place. I cried for days, not unlike the children who had stumbled down the Trail of Tears so many years before. I wept tears . . . tears from my history, from my tribe's past. They were Cherokee tears."

Political awakening

Mankiller finished high school and took a job as a clerk. She met and married Hector Hugo Olaya de Bardi in 1963, and they had two daughters. Wilma settled into the role of wife and mother. This was a time when there were many political and social movements taking place across America. In 1969 her life was changed. San Francisco State student and Mohawk Richard Oakes (1942–1972), along with other Native Americans of different tribes, occupied an abandoned prison on Alcatraz island in the San Francisco Bay to call attention to the mistreatment of Native Americans by the U.S. government. The invasion was seen as a historic event by many Native American people, Mankiller included. "When Alcatraz occurred, I became aware of what needed to be done to let the rest of the world know that Indians had rights, too. Alcatraz articulated [expressed] my own feelings about being an Indian," Mankiller stated in her autobiography. She began a commitment to serve the Native American people to the best of her ability in the area of law and legal defense.

In addition to wanting to help her people, Mankiller began to desire independence, and she began taking courses at a community college and later at San Francisco State. This caused a conflict with her marriage. "Once I began to become more independent, more active with school and in the community, it became increasingly difficult to keep my marriage together. Before that, Hugo had viewed me as someone he had rescued from a very bad life," she noted in her autobiography. In 1974 she was divorced and became a single head of the household.

Personal tragedies and health problems

In 1971 Mankiller's father died from a kidney disease in San Francisco, which she said "tore through my spirit like a blade of lightning." The family took Charlie Mankiller home to Oklahoma for burial, and then Wilma Mankiller returned to California. It was not long before she too had kidney problems, inherited from her father. Her early kidney problems could be treated, though eventually she had to have a transplant. Her brother Donald became her "hero" by donating one of his kidneys so that she could live.

In 1976 Mankiller returned to Oklahoma for good. She found a job as a community coordinator in the Cherokee tribal headquarters and enrolled in graduate courses at the University of Arkansas in Fayetteville. This required her to drive a long distance every day. She was returning home one morning in 1979 when a car approached her on a blind curve and, out of nowhere, another car attempted to pass it. She swerved to miss the approaching car but failed. The vehicles collided almost head-on. Mankiller was seriously injured, and many thought she would not survive. The driver of the other automobile did not. It turned out to be Sherry Morris, Mankiller's best friend. Mankiller had to overcome both her physical injuries and the guilt she experienced after the accident. Then in 1980 she came down with myasthenia gravis, a muscle disease. Again her life was threatened, but her will to live and her determination to heal her body with the power of her mind prevailed.

Becomes principal chief

In 1983 Ross Swimmer (1943–), then principal chief of the Cherokee Nation of

Oklahoma, asked Mankiller to be his deputy chief in the election. While campaigning she was surprised by the criticism she received—not for her stand on any particular issue, but simply because she was a woman. Swimmer and Mankiller won the election and took office in August. On December 5, 1985, Swimmer was nominated to head the Bureau of Indian Affairs in Washington, D.C. Mankiller was sworn in to replace him as principal chief of the Cherokee Nation. She focused on education and health care, overseeing the construction of new schools, job-training centers, and health clinics.

Mankiller overcame many tragedies to become a guiding power for the Cherokee people of Oklahoma and a symbol of achievement for women everywhere. Throughout her life, Mankiller has managed to not complain about how bad things were for herself, for her people, and for Native Americans in general. She instead has worked to help make life better. Although she declined to seek another term as principal chief in 1995 for health reasons, she remains in the public eye, writing and giving lectures across the country. She has stressed that if all the Native Americans who were eligible to vote actually did so, officials elected with those votes would be forced to address the problems of Native Americans. She also has called for an end to the increasing problem of violence against women. Mankiller was inducted into the Women's Hall of Fame in New York City in 1994 and was given a Presidential Medal of Freedom by then-president Bill Clinton (1946–) in 1998.

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MICKEY MANTLE

Born: October 20, 1931

Spavinaw, Oklahoma

Died: August 13, 1995

Dallas, Texas

American baseball player

Baseball player Mickey Mantle (known as “the Mick”) won four home-run championships, a Triple Crown (highest batting average, most home runs, and most RBIs [runs batted in] in one season), and three Most Valuable Player (MVP) awards during his eighteen-year career with the New York Yankees.

Early years

Mickey Charles Mantle was born on October 20, 1931, in Spavinaw, Oklahoma, to Elvin (“Mutt”) and Lovell Richardson Mantle. A former semi-pro (professional but independent of Major League Baseball) baseball player, Mutt Mantle named his first child after Detroit Tigers catcher Mickey Cochrane. Mickey was barely out of diapers before he was practicing baseball with his father. Mutt taught his son to be a switch-hitter: Mickey would use his natural right-handed swing

against his left-handed father and then turn around and bat left-handed against his right-handed grandfather.

Mantle played baseball, basketball, and football at his high school in Commerce, Oklahoma. During one game, however, he was kicked in the leg and developed osteomyelitis, a bone disease that would later affect his baseball career. Mantle attracted the attention of New York Yankee scout Tom Greenwade, who signed him to a contract of \$140 a week with a \$1,500 signing bonus.

Quick rise to the majors

Mantle reported to the Yankees’ minor league team in Independence, Kansas, in 1949 as a shortstop. After two years in the minor leagues, the Yankees invited him to their major league training camp. He earned a place on the roster, and the New York media soon began comparing him to Babe Ruth (1895–1948) and other past Yankee greats. Only nineteen years old and two years out of high school, Mantle did not immediately live up to the hype. He started slowly in his new position—right field—and was sent back to the minor leagues. Mantle’s difficulties continued when, in 1952, his father died of Hodgkin’s disease, a form of cancer, at the age of thirty-nine. Mantle had been very close to his father, and he took the death hard.

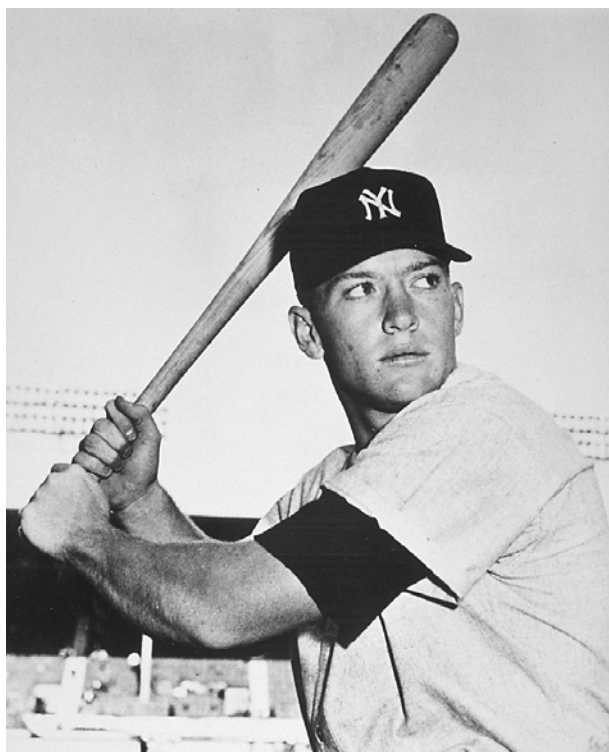
Mantle was moved to center field when Joe DiMaggio (1914–1999) retired from the Yankees following the 1951 season. He began to adjust to big-league play, and in 1952 he batted .311 with 23 home runs and 87 RBIs. That season Mantle began to establish himself as one of baseball’s best home-run hitters. During one game against the Washington Senators, Mantle hit a ball completely out of

Griffith Stadium in Washington, D.C. Measured at 565 feet, it is believed to be the longest home run ever hit. The New York Yankees won the World Series during each of Mantle's first three seasons, from 1951 to 1953. During the 1952 World Series against the Brooklyn Dodgers, Mantle batted .345 with two home runs. In the 1953 Series, again against the Dodgers, he batted only .208 but hit two more home runs.

Continued success

Mantle's talents led the Yankees as they ruled throughout the late 1950s. They won the American League pennant each year from 1955 to 1958, taking the World Series in 1956 and 1958. Mantle became a genuine superstar in 1956 when he won baseball's Triple Crown, with a .353 batting average, 52 home runs, and 130 RBIs. He was also selected the American League's MVP. In 1957 he hit .365 and was again named the league MVP.

Mantle's success at the plate continued as the Yankees remained strong well into the 1960s. After losing the pennant to the Chicago White Sox in 1959, the team came back to win it the next five seasons, joined by new stars such as Tony Kubek, Bobby Richardson, Bill Skowron, and Roger Maris. Mantle captured the home run title again in 1960, and he led the competition for the title again in 1961—one of the most dramatic home run seasons in the history of the game. By early August Mantle already had hit 43 home runs, while Maris, his teammate, had 42. The record for home runs in a season was held by Babe Ruth, who had blasted 60 in 1927. Although Mantle ended the year with 54 home runs (his all-time high), Maris hit 61 homers and established the new all-time



Mickey Mantle.

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record (later broken by Mark McGwire in 1998, then Barry Bonds in 2001).

Mantle continued to excel even though his legs hurt most of the time from the osteomyelitis and other injuries. In 1962 he was named American League MVP for the third time. Although the Yankees continued to win pennants, their days of glory were coming to an end. They lost the 1963 World Series to the Los Angeles Dodgers and the 1964 World Series to the St. Louis Cardinals. By 1965 the Yankees's run was over. Mantle became unhappy with his pain and with his many strikeouts. During the 1965 season he said, "It isn't any fun when things are like this."

I'm only thirty-three, but I feel like forty." Mantle continued to play through the 1968 season; he announced his retirement in the spring of 1969.

Later years

Mantle left the Yankees with many great achievements. In addition to hitting 536 lifetime home runs, he led the American League in homers four times and was chosen as its most valuable player three times. He is one of only a few players to win a Triple Crown. He played on twelve pennant-winning and seven World Series-winning teams. He still holds the all-time record for home runs in World Series play (18) as well as numerous other World Series records. Mantle was a symbol of the Yankees and their greatness. In 1974 he was elected to baseball's Hall of Fame in his first year on the ballot (a list of players who are eligible to be voted into the Hall of Fame).

After retiring from baseball, Mantle pursued a business career, opening a restaurant and working in public relations for a casino in Atlantic City, New Jersey. He also made appearances to sign autographs and play in golf tournaments. His experience in television commercials and small film roles led to a job as a broadcaster for televised Yankees games. His career and personal life was marred by alcoholism, however.

Mantle had married Merlyn, a bank employee, in the 1950s, and they had four sons. Mantle was absent for much of their childhood, however, and he had a reputation for his all-night drinking. He and his wife separated in 1988. Their son Billy died of heart failure in March 1994 after being treated for Hodgkin's disease, the same illness that had taken Mantle's father and grandfa-

ther. Earlier in 1994 Mantle learned that his years of heavy drinking had left him with hepatitis (a swelling of the liver) and liver cancer. Although he received a liver transplant in June 1995, the cancer had spread to other organs, and Mantle died on August 13. His outstanding abilities and courage in the face of pain made him a hero to a generation of youngsters and adults alike.

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MAO ZEDONG

Born: December 26, 1893

Shaoshan, Hunan, China

Died: September 9, 1976

Beijing, China

Chinese statesman

Mao Zedong was a Chinese statesman whose status as a revolutionary in world history is probably next only to that of Vladimir Lenin (1870–1924). More than anyone else in recent history, Mao Zedong helped to reshape the social and political structures of his ancient and heavily populated country.

Early years

Mao Zedong was born in Shaoshan, Hunan, China, on December 26, 1893. Mao had two younger brothers and one younger sister. His father, Mao Jensheng, had started out as a poor peasant but eventually paid off his debts, became a landowner, and started a business trading rice. A devoted follower of the religion of Buddhism, his mother, Wen Ch'i-mei, wanted her son to have a religious career. Mao did not venture outside his home province (state) until he was twenty-five. Up to then, his formal education was limited to six years at a junior normal school where he acquired a limited knowledge of science, learned almost no foreign language, but developed a clear written style and a considerable understanding of social problems, Chinese history, and current affairs. However, Mao inherited the practical traditions of Hunan education with the hope that somehow it would help him find ways to strengthen and improve his country.

Mao's brief time in Peking, China, in 1918 broadened his view. Although his life there was miserable, he was working under the chief librarian of Peking University, who was one of the pioneer Marxists of China. (Marxists are those that believe in a social system created by Karl Marx [1818–1883] that gives the control to the working class. This system ultimately leads to communism, where goods and services are owned and distributed by the government.) On his return to Hunan in the following year, Mao was already committed to communism. While making a living as a primary schoolteacher, he edited radical (extreme) magazines, organized trade unions, and set up politically oriented schools of his own. With the rise of the



Mao Zedong.

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Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in 1921, of which Mao was one of fifty founding members, these activities were pursued with added energy and to a greater depth.

Meanwhile, the major political party, the Kuomintang (KMT), was reorganized, and a coalition (partnership) was formed between the KMT and CCP. Mao's main task was to coordinate the policies of both parties; however, he was unable to prove himself in this position due to his lack of academic and social standing. In 1925 when the coalition ran into problems, Mao was sent back to Hunan to "convalesce," or recover.

Champion of the peasants

An unfortunate result of this setback was that Mao was completely left out of the nationwide protests against Japan and Britain in the summer of that year, during which many of his comrades made their mark as leaders of the trade union movement or party politics. Out of his “convalescence,” Mao discovered the revolutionary potential of the peasants, the poor farm workers whose great numbers had been treated poorly by the warlords. From then on Mao switched his attention to this vast underprivileged class of people.

Mao’s newly acquired knowledge and experience enabled him to play a leading role in the peasant movement led by both the KMT and CCP. By 1927 he was in a position to support a class substitution in the Chinese revolution. Mao proposed that the poor peasants fill the role of revolutionary vanguard (the most important positions). Shortly after the publication of his *Report on the Peasant Movement in Hunan*, the KMT-CCP coalition broke up and the Communists were forced underground.

Establishment of soviets

Some survivors of the party went underground in the cities, to continue their struggle as a working-class party; the rest took up arms against the government and eventually established rural soviets (small governments) in central and northern China. One of these soviets was Mao’s Ching-kang mountain base area between Kiangsi and Hunan, where he had to rely chiefly on the support of the poor peasants.

The soviets threatened to disrupt the unity of the revolutionary movement, because it was thought that it would break it up into small pockets. The center of the CCP,

located underground in Shanghai, China, therefore took on the task of strengthening its leadership and party loyalty. A successful revolution, in its view, had to take the course of a series of urban uprisings under proletarian (working-class) leadership. In its effort to achieve this, the center had to ease the growing powers of the soviet leaders like Mao. Its effort gradually produced results: Mao first lost his control over the army he had organized and trained, then his position in the soviet party, and finally even much of his power in the soviet government.

The Long March

The years of this struggle within the party coincided with Chiang Kai-shek’s (1897–1975) successes in his anti-Communist campaigns. Eventually Chiang was able to drive the Communists out of their base areas on the Long March (a year-long, six-thousand-mile journey through the hills of Shensi). The loss of nearly all the soviets in central China suffered by the Communists proved the weaknesses of central party leadership.

When the revolutionary movement slowed and the hardships of the Long March were felt, those who might have challenged Mao for leadership fell by the wayside. By the time the Communists arrived at Yen-an, China, the party had gained a measure of unity, to be further consolidated (brought together) after the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War in 1937, where China and Japan fought over land in China. This was the first truly nationalist war China had ever fought, in which the nation as a whole united to face the common foe of Japan.

By early 1941 the unity between the KMT and CCP had come to exist in name

only. This new situation called for the emergence of a Communist leader who could rival Chiang in case a civil war broke out. Mao was such the person, and soon his popularity began to grow.

Leader of the Chinese Communists

The personality cult (a community of worship) of Mao grew until his concepts were written into the party's constitution of 1945 (the constitution would outline the party's rules and principles). Under Mao's brilliant leadership the party fought from one victory to another, until it took power in 1949. Mao's concepts now guided the Communists in their way of thinking, their organization, and their action. In giving their faith to Mao's belief, they found unity and strength, and an understanding of the nature, strategy, and tactics of the revolution.

But Mao's concept had very little to say about the modernization and industrialization of China. Therefore, after 1949 the CCP was left to follow the example of the Soviet Union, with Soviet aid in the years of the cold war, the four-decade period of sour relations between Communist and free-world powers.

Mao launched the Socialist Upsurge in the Countryside of 1955 and the Great Leap Forward in 1958. The essential feature of these movements was a reliance upon the voluntary spirit of the people motivated by a new moral discipline, rather than upon money. The failure of the Great Leap Forward hurt Mao's power and reputation even further.

Cultural revolution

At this time, the worsening relations with the Soviet Union made its fatal impact.

Withdrawal of Soviet material aid practically all but ended China's attempt to copy the Soviet model. In the midst of this, Mao began his comeback.

During the famous Cultural Revolution of 1966 through 1969, Mao organized the army and young students into the Red Guards. With their help, Mao began to reorganize the CCP. Soon there was no Chinese thought beyond the extent of Mao's thought. By this Mao hoped to create enthusiasm of the Chinese masses to work harder while enduring a quiet and uncomplicated life. This may be the only way for a poor and heavily populated country like China to afford rapid transition into an industrialized country.

Last years

By the time Mao was in his late seventies, his life's work was essentially done, although he retained power until the end. Physically weakened, suffering from a lifetime of effort and Parkinson's Disease (a brain disorder), Mao's ability to rule in new and innovative ways to meet the demands of China's modernization grew increasingly weak. One of his final major acts was to reopen contact with the United States.

On September 9, 1976, Mao died in Beijing, China. Mao was undoubtedly the key figure in China in the twentieth century and one of the century's most important movers and reformers. He had devoted his life to the advancement of a peasant class terrorized for centuries by those in power. However, in pursuit of his own goals, Mao himself could be a violent and overpowering ruler.

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ROCKY MARCIANO

Born: September 1, 1923

Brockton, Massachusetts

Died: August 31, 1969

Des Moines, Iowa

American boxer

Boxer Rocky Marciano held the heavyweight boxing title for four years during the 1950s. He is the only boxing champion to ever retire undefeated.

His younger years

Rocky Marciano was born Rocco Francis Marchegiano on September 1, 1923, in Brockton, Massachusetts. His father, Pierino, worked at a shoe factory. His mother's name was Pasqualena. Rocky would spend much of his life making sure she would not live in the poverty he had known growing up. He worked many different jobs to help his family, including as a dishwasher, in a candy factory, as a gardener, and in a shoe factory.

As a youngster Rocky played baseball and football and dreamed of a professional career in one of those sports. He got into many fights when he thought he or his friends had been insulted, but he did not take up boxing until after 1943, when he was drafted into the army. He took the sport up because it helped him avoid "KP" ("kitchen police," soldiers who assisted the cooks) and other less desirable activities. He showed a natural ability and fought as an amateur following his discharge from the army in 1946. He won twenty-seven of his thirty fights.

Baseball dreams

In 1947 Marciano had a chance to fulfill his dream of being a baseball player. He was given a tryout with the Chicago Cubs as a catcher. He did not make the team, because he could not accurately throw from home plate to second base due to an arm injury he received in the army. It was the end of his baseball dreams. The following year he turned professional in the boxing ring.

By the spring of 1949 Marciano's boxing skills had received attention, after he knocked out his first sixteen opponents. The people he fought were not up to his level, but he learned much about the sport during this period. The quality of his opponents improved over the latter half of 1949 and 1950. Marciano continued to beat all opponents, knocking out most of them.

Proved doubters wrong

There were those who thought not much good would come from the 190-pound heavyweight from Brockton in the early days. Goody Petronelli, who was a famous fight trainer, saw one of Marciano's early fights. In

a story for *Sports Illustrated* he said, “I never thought he’d make it. He was too old, almost twenty-five. He was too short, he was too light. He had no reach. Rough and tough, but no finesse [refinement].” The hometown folks believed in him, though. They traveled in groups to Marciano’s fights in nearby Providence, Rhode Island, and yelled “Timmmberrr” when Rocky had an opponent ready to go down.

Boxing technique

Charley Goldman was the trainer who taught Marciano his trademark technique, which would serve him well as champion. Marciano was shorter than many of his opponents and his arms were not as long. Goldman taught him to use these characteristics to his advantage. He told him to make himself smaller by bending his knees almost into a deep knee squat. This gave his opponents less targets on his body to hit. He learned to punch from that position, coming straight up almost from the floor with amazing power. Even with what seemed like a physical disadvantage, because of his training and will to win, Marciano turned out to be one of the best-conditioned athletes in sports.

Marciano defeats Joe Louis

By October 26, 1951, Marciano had thirty-seven wins and thirty-two knockouts under his belt. That was the day Marciano faced his most formidable (challenging) opponent—former heavyweight champion Joe Louis (1914–1981). Louis was past his prime, his best fighting years, and Marciano knocked him out in the eighth round. Marciano had such mixed feelings about beating a man he had considered his hero that he



Rocky Marciano.

Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.

cried in Louis’s dressing room after the fight. The fight established Marciano as one of the most famous fighters in the heavyweight division, and assured him of a chance to box for the title before too long.

Takes the Belt from Jersey Joe

After another five fights he got the chance to go for the title. Jersey Joe Walcott was the defending champion and Marciano was the challenger when the pair met in Philadelphia on September 23, 1952. Marciano won a victory that is remembered as typical of his tough-guy, never-say-die style. Marciano was behind on points and strug-

gling all night. He would not give up and finally caught Walcott with a short, overhand right to the jaw in the thirteenth round. Walcott was knocked unconscious and Marciano won the championship belt.

His years as champion

Marciano defended his title only six times, but some of those fights are considered classics by boxing fans. He knocked out Walcott in the first round of their rematch in 1953. He then knocked out challenger Roland La Starza later that year.

Marciano won a decision against Ezzard Charles in 1954. He almost lost his title in their rematch later that year. In the sixth round Charles cut Marciano's nose so badly that his cornermen (the people who Marciano had in his corner of the ring) could not stop the bleeding. The ring doctor watched the cut closely and considered stopping the fight, but Marciano came back forcefully against Charles in the eighth round and knocked him out.

Marciano defended his title against Don Cockell in 1955 by a knockout. It was later learned that organized crime tried to get him to throw the fight.

Marciano's last fight was September 21, 1955, the third time he defended his title in Yankee Stadium. He knocked out Archie Moore in the ninth round. Over four hundred thousand North American viewers watched the bout on closed-circuit television.

Retired from boxing

On April 27, 1956, Marciano retired from boxing. He was thirty-one. "I thought it was a mistake when Joe Louis tried a come-

back," he told the *New York Times* in an interview. "No man can say what he will do in the future, but barring poverty, the ring has seen the last of me. I am comfortably fixed, and I am not afraid of the future." He said he wanted to spend more time with his family. Some people have said that he also was upset because he had to pay half of his earnings to his manager.

The last years

After Marciano retired he made money from personal appearances. He was frugal (very careful with money). He preferred getting rides from friends who had private planes, even though he could usually be given paid transportation to and from any of his personal appearances.

On August 31, 1969, the day before his forty-sixth birthday, he died in a private-plane crash near Des Moines, Iowa. He was survived by his wife of nineteen years, Barbara, and his two children, Rocco Kevin and Mary Anne.

Marciano was never among the top boxers of all time in terms of skill, speed, or power, but he knew how to use the skills he had developed and his fans recognized his grit. One sportswriter commented that if all the heavyweight champions of all time were locked together in a room, Marciano would be the one to walk out.

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FERDINAND MARCOS

Born: September 11, 1917

Sarrat, Philippines

Died: September 28, 1989

Honolulu, Hawaii

Filipino president and politician

Philippine president Ferdinand Marcos began his career in politics with the murder of Julio Nalundasan in 1935, and ended it after the murder of Benigno Aquino Jr. in 1983. Some believe his entire life was based on fraud, deceit, and theft, and his time as president has come to represent one of the prime examples of a corrupt government.

Youth and family

Ferdinand Edralin Marcos was born on September 11, 1917, in Sarrat, a village in the Ilocos North region of the island of Luzon in the Philippines. His parents, Josefa Edralin and Mariano Marcos, were both teachers from important families. In 1925 Mariano Marcos became a congressman, surrounding the young Ferdinand in a political atmosphere at an early age. Mariano also had a strong influence on what was to become Ferdinand's competitive, win-at-all-costs nature. Mariano and Josefa pushed Ferdinand to excel at everything, not only his studies at school, but also at activities such as wrestling, boxing, hunting, survival skills, and marksmanship (skill with a gun or rifle). In college, Marcos's main interest was the .22-caliber college pistol team.

Marcos's real father was not Mariano but a wealthy Chinese man named Ferdinand

Chua. (Marcos would claim that Chua was his "godfather.") Chua was a well-connected judge who was responsible for much of Marcos's unusual good luck as a young man. Among other things, Chua paid for young Marcos's schooling and later managed to influence the Philippine Supreme Court to overturn the young Marcos's conviction for murder.

On September 20, 1935, Julio Nalundasan was at home celebrating his congressional election victory over Mariano Marcos when he was shot and killed with a .22-caliber bullet fired by the eighteen-year-old Ferdinand Marcos. Three years later, Ferdinand was arrested for Nalundasan's murder. A year later, after having graduated from law school, he was found guilty of the crime. While in jail Marcos spent six months writing his own appeal for a new trial. When the Supreme Court finally took up Marcos's appeal in 1940, the judge in charge (apparently influenced by Judge Chua) threw out the case. Marcos was a free man. The next day, he returned to the Supreme Court and took the oath to become a lawyer.

Wartime activities

Throughout Marcos's childhood, the Philippines had been a colony (a foreign region under the control of another country) of the United States. However, the Philippines had been largely self-governing and gained independence in 1946. This occurred only after fierce fighting in the country during World War II (1939–45), the international conflict for control of large areas of the world between the Axis (Germany, Japan, and Italy) and the Allies (United States, Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and others). During



Ferdinand Marcos.

Reproduced by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.

World War II, the Philippines were invaded and occupied by the Japanese, while U.S. forces and Filipino resistance fighters fought to regain control of the country.

Marcos emerged from World War II with a reputation as the greatest Filipino resistance leader of the war and the most decorated soldier in the U.S. armed forces. However, he appeared to have spent the war on both sides, lending support to both the Japanese and the United States. In early 1943 in Manila (the capital of the Philippines), Marcos created a “secret” resistance organization called Ang Mga Maharlika that he claimed consisted of agents working against the Japanese. In fact,

the group consisted of many criminals—forgers, pickpockets, gunmen, and gangsters—hoping to make money in the wartime climate.

At the war’s end, Marcos took up the practice of law again. He often filed false claims in Washington, D.C., on behalf of Filipino veterans seeking back pay (wages owed) and benefits. Encouraged by his success with these claims, he filed a \$595 thousand claim on his own behalf, stating that the U.S. Army had taken over two thousand head of cattle from Mariano Marcos’s ranch. In fact, this ranch never existed, which made Washington conclude that the cattle never existed.

Political career

In December 1948 a magazine editor published four articles on Marcos’s war experiences, causing Marcos’s reputation to grow. In 1949, campaigning on promises to get veterans’ benefits for two million Filipinos, Marcos ran as a Liberal Party candidate for a seat in the Philippine House of Representatives. He won with 70 percent of the vote. In less than a year he was worth a million dollars, mostly because of his American tobacco subsidies (financial assistance to grow tobacco), a huge cigarette smuggling operation, and his practice of pressuring Chinese businesses to cooperate with him. In 1954 he formally met Imelda Romualdez (1929–) and married her.

Marcos was reelected twice, and in 1959 he was elected to the Philippine Senate. He was also the Liberal Party’s vice-president from 1954 to 1961, when he successfully managed Diosdado Macapagal’s (1911–1997) run for the Philippine presidency. As part of his arrangement with Marcos, Macapagal was supposed to step aside after one term to allow Marcos to run for the presidency. When

Macapagal did not do this, Marcos joined the opposition Nationalist Party and became their candidate in the 1965 election against Macapagal and easily won. Marcos was now president of the Philippines.

In 1969 Marcos became the first Philippine president to win a second term. However, not all Filipinos were happy with his presidency, and the month following his reelection included the most violent public demonstrations in the history of the country. Three years later, facing growing student protest and a crumbling economy, Marcos declared martial law, a state of emergency in which military authorities are given extraordinary powers to maintain order. Marcos's excuse for declaring martial law was the growing revolutionary movement of the Communist New People's Army, which opposed his government.

During the next nine years of martial law, Marcos tripled the armed forces to some two hundred thousand troops, guaranteeing his grip on government. When martial law was lifted in 1981, he kept all the power he had been granted under martial law to himself. Meanwhile the economy continued to crumble while Ferdinand and Imelda Marcos became one of the richest couples in the world. As Marcos's health began to fail and U.S. support for him lessened, opposition to Marcos grew in the Philippine middle class.

Final years

The Marcos regime began to collapse after the August 1983 assassination (political killing) of Benigno S. Aquino Jr. (1933–1983), who had been Marcos's main political rival. Aquino was shot and killed when he arrived at the Manila airport after three years in the

United States. The killing enraged Filipinos, as did authorities' claim that the murder was the work of a single gunman. A year later, a civilian investigation brought charges against a number of soldiers and government officials, but in 1985 none of them were found guilty. Nevertheless, most Filipinos believe that Marcos was involved in Aquino's killing.

Marcos next called for a "snap [sudden] election" to be held early in 1986. In that election, which was marked by violence and charges of fraud, Marcos's opponent was Aquino's widow, Corazon Aquino. When the Philippine National Assembly announced that Marcos was the winner, a rebellion in the Philippine military, supported by hundreds of thousands of Filipinos marching in the streets, forced Ferdinand and Imelda Marcos to flee the country.

Marcos asked for U.S. aid but was given nothing more than an air force jet, which flew him and Imelda to Hawaii. He remained there until his death on September 28, 1989. The Marcoses had taken with them more than twenty-eight million cash in Philippine currency. President Aquino's administration said this was only a small part of the Marcoses' illegally gained wealth.

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MARCUS AURELIUS

Born: April 26, 121

Rome (now in Italy)

Died: March 17, 180

Vindobona (now Vienna, Austria)

Roman emperor

The Roman emperor Marcus Aurelius (121–180) was a Stoic philosopher. Stoicism was a complex philosophy that advised people to find happiness by living in harmony with the universe and by doing their part to better the world—without worries about fate or about things they were unable to control. When Marcus Aurelius became emperor there was widespread celebration that Plato’s dream of a philosopher-king had become reality at last.

Born into privilege

Born Marcus Annius Verus on April 26, 121, of a noble family, Marcus Aurelius Antoninus grew up close to the center of power. When he was a child, the emperor Hadrian (76–138) noticed him and made a word play on his name, Verus (meaning “true”), by calling him Verissimus (meaning “truest”) for his strong sense of morals. Hadrian had difficulty choosing an emperor to follow him, but placed Marcus on the path to

rule. When he adopted Marcus’s uncle by marriage, Antoninus Pius (86–161), he arranged for Antoninus to adopt Marcus Aurelius along with the young Lucius Verus (130–169).

Marcus Aurelius had an extraordinary education. Among his tutors was Diognetus, a painter and Stoic philosopher. Marcus studied subjects such as poetry and law, and generally was an excellent student. But philosophy was Marcus’s main interest. Under Diognetus’s influence, young Marcus became a Stoic at the age of eleven and remained a dedicated follower of stoicism for the rest of his life.

Rise to emperor

Antoninus Pius, only a year after he became emperor, had the title Caesar placed on Marcus in 139. His daughter Faustina probably married Marcus in 140. Throughout the reign of Antoninus (ruled 138–161), Marcus worked closely with him.

When Antoninus died and Marcus became emperor, he insisted that Verus also be given full power. Thus, for the first time, Rome had two equal emperors. The reason this arrangement did not produce conflict between lifetime equals was due in large part to the good nature of Verus and his acceptance of Marcus’s seniority in years and judgment.

Foreign wars

When Verus and Marcus first became joint emperors of Rome they faced the problem of war in the East. Parthia (located in present-day Iran) was always a rival for power in Armenia, and in 162 Parthia attacked. Marcus Aurelius remained in Rome and sent Verus to take charge of the war.

Although Verus was not a trained soldier, the war carried on smoothly. But in late 165 a plague, or very contagious disease, broke out among the Roman troops. They carried it back with them and the plague killed a quarter or more of the population of the Roman Empire. Rome recalled its armies from Parthia, defeated but not conquered. Nevertheless, Marcus and Verus celebrated a great triumph.

The Parthian War had ended none too soon, for the German War had already begun. In 167 a group of tribes crossed the Danube River, destroyed a Roman army, and successfully conquered a city in Italy. The danger was critical, for the plague was raging, particularly in the army camps. Also, the Roman treasury, always short of money, was worse off than usual.

Marcus raised new armies and funds and in 168 went with Verus to the battlefield. Verus died in early 169, and Marcus was left to face the war alone. The Germans were driven back, but the war dragged on, with Marcus mainly at the battlefield. Gradually the Romans gained the upper hand. But by 175 Marcus had to call off the war because of the revolt of Avidius Cassius in the East.

Revolt of Avidius Cassius

After his service in the Parthian War, Avidius Cassius, a Syrian, had been made governor of Syria and held great power. In 175 Marcus grew sick and it was rumored that he was either dying or dead. Partly for this reason Avidius was hailed emperor and accepted by most of the East. Marcus had to break off the war in Germany and hurry eastward.



Marcus Aurelius.

Cassius was murdered three months later and his body was sent back to Rome in late 176. The German War started again in 177, and Marcus returned to the battlefield. Once again he was winning the war. However, Marcus died on March 17, 180—never to see the final victory over the Germans.

The Meditations

Marcus Aurelius is most remembered for the collection of his thoughts or reflections usually entitled *The Meditations*. Apparently written down from time to time, the thoughts form no organized system of philosophy. Rather, they are the record of a person whose principles were noble, who had a warm love

of humankind, and who had a philosophy similar to religion. To Marcus, happiness was to be achieved by living “according to nature,” in harmony with the principle that ordered the universe; the peace of mind of such a person could not be affected by life’s difficulties.

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MARIE ANTOINETTE

Born: November 2, 1755

Vienna (now in Austria)

Died: October 16, 1793

Paris, France

French queen

Marie Antoinette was the queen of France at the outbreak of the French Revolution (1787–99). Her extravagant lifestyle, which included lavish parties and expensive clothes and jewelry, made her unpopular with most French citizens. When the king was overthrown, Marie Antoinette was put in jail and eventually beheaded.

A royal marriage

Marie Antoinette was born on November 2, 1755, in Vienna (now in Austria), the capital of the Holy Roman Empire. She was the eleventh daughter of the Holy Roman emperor Francis I (1708–1765) and the empress Maria Theresa (1717–1780). In 1770 she married Louis XVI (1754–1793). Louis was the French dauphin, or the oldest son of the king of France. He became king four years later in 1774, which made Marie Antoinette the queen.

The personalities of the two rulers were very different. Louis XVI was withdrawn and emotionless. Marie Antoinette was happy and careless in her actions and choice of friends. At first the new queen was well liked by the French citizens. She organized elegant dances and gave many gifts and favors to her friends. However, people began to resent her increasingly extravagant ways. She soon became unpopular in the court and the country, annoying many of the nobles, including the King’s brothers. She also bothered French aristocrats, or nobles, who were upset over a recent alliance with Austria. Austria was long viewed as France’s enemy. Among the general French population she became the symbol for the extravagance of the royal family.

The queen intervenes

Marie Antoinette did not disrupt foreign affairs as frequently as has been claimed. When she first entered France she interrupted an official German greeting with, “Speak French, Monsieur. From now on I hear no language other than French.” She sometimes tried, usually without great success, to obtain French support for her homeland.

The queen's influence on domestic policy before 1789 has also been exaggerated. Her interference in politics was usually in order to obtain jobs and money for her friends. It is true, however, that she usually opposed the efforts of reforming ministers such as A. R. J. Turgot (1727–1781) and became involved in court scandals against them. Activities such as the “diamond necklace affair,” where the queen was accused of having an improper relationship with a wealthy church official in exchange for an expensive necklace, increased her unpopularity and led to a stream of pamphlets and articles against her. The fact that after the birth of her children Marie Antoinette's way of life became more restrained did not alter the popular image of an immoral and extravagant woman.

The last days of the monarchy

In the summer of 1788 France was having an economic crisis. Louis XVI yielded to pressure and assembled the Estates General, which was a governmental body that represented France's three Estates—the nobles, the church, and the French common people. Marie Antoinette agreed to the return of Jacques Necker (1732–1804) as chief minister and to granting the Third Estate, which represented the commoners, as many representatives as the other two Estates combined. However, after such events as the taking of the Bastille on July 14, 1789 (French citizens overran a Paris prison and took the weapons stored there), Marie Antoinette supported the conservative court faction that insisted on keeping the royal family in power.

On October 1, 1789, the queen attended a banquet at Versailles, France, during which the French Revolution was attacked and insulted. A



Marie Antoinette.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

few days later (October 4–5) a Parisian crowd forced the royal court to move to Paris, where they could control it more easily. Marie Antoinette's role in the efforts of the monarchy to work with such moderates as the Comte de Mirabeau (1749–1791) and later with the constitutional monarchist A. P. Barnave (1761–1793) is unclear. But it appears that she lacked confidence in them. On June 21, 1791, the king and queen were captured at Varennes (a border town in France) after trying to escape. Convinced that only foreign assistance could save the monarchy, the queen sought the aid of her brother, the Holy Roman emperor Leopold II (1747–1792). At this time, many French military officers left the country. Thinking that

France would be easily defeated, she favored a declaration of war against Austria in April 1792. On August 10, 1792, a Paris crowd stormed the Tuileries Palace and ended the monarchy.

The queen is dead

On August 13, 1792, Marie Antoinette began a captivity that was to end only with her death. She was jailed in various Parisian prisons. After a number of unsuccessful attempts to escape, Marie Antoinette appeared before the Revolutionary Tribunal. She was charged with aiding the enemy and inciting civil war within France. The tribunal found her guilty and condemned her to death. On October 16, 1793, she went to the guillotine. (The guillotine was a machine used during the French Revolution to execute people by beheading them.) Marie Antoinette aroused sympathy by her dignity and courage in prison and before the executioner.

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MARK ANTONY

Born: c. 83 B.C.E.

Rome (now in Italy)

Died: 30 B.C.E.

Alexandria, Egypt

Roman politician and general

The Roman politician and general Mark Antony was the chief rival of another prominent Roman politician, Octavian (63 B.C.E.–14 C.E.), seeking leadership of the Roman Empire. Both men desired to assume power after the assassination (political murder) of Julius Caesar in 44 B.C.E. The man who came out on top of this struggle would go on to become perhaps the most powerful figure in the world at that time.

Youth and family

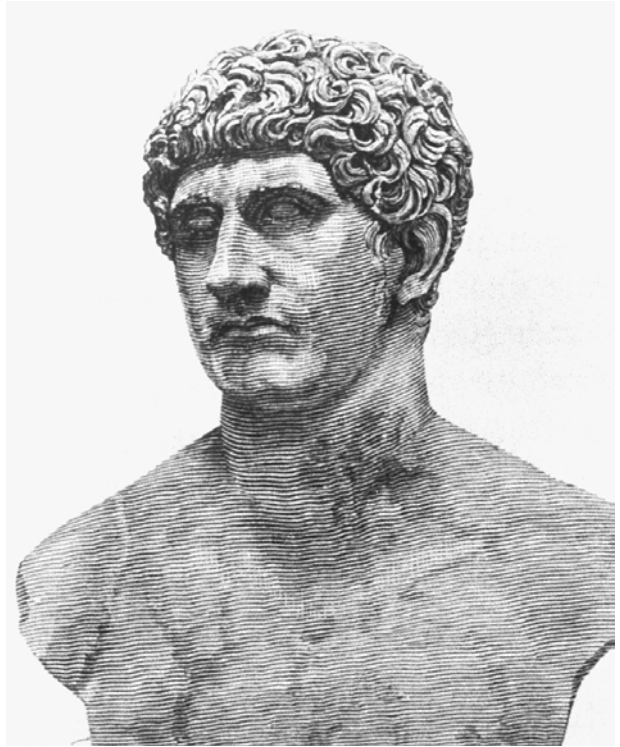
Mark Antony (in Latin, Marcus Antonius) came from a distinguished Roman family. His grandfather had been one of Rome's leading public speakers, and his father, Marcus Antonius Creticus, had died in a military expedition against pirates when Antony was young.

As a young man from a distinguished family, Antony received an appropriate education. His studies focused on skills that would be useful to him later in politics, such as the art of public speaking and the ability to think about a question or situation objectively and from many angles. All his life, however, he was known for mixing such activities with a love of less serious pleasures. At an early age he became known for the personality traits he showed later as an adult: he was brave, loyal to friends, athletic, and attractive, but he was also reckless, occasionally lazy, fond of drinking and carousing, and involved in love affairs.

Career with Caesar

Antony received his first overseas experience in the eastern portion of the Roman Empire, when, during 57 to 55 B.C.E., he served with the Roman governor of Syria, which was a province (territory) of Rome. From there he went to serve with Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.) in Gaul (a region of Europe that included what is now modern-day France, as well as parts of modern-day Germany, Belgium, and Italy). Caesar conquered Gaul for Rome, and Antony assisted him in suppressing local rebellion against the Romans. In 50 B.C.E., after returning to Rome, Antony was elected a tribune, an office that represented the people's interests. Tribunes were expected to stand up for the rights of individuals and for those who were not members of the highest classes of Roman society. By contrast, the Senate, Rome's primary governing and advisory body, was composed primarily of members from a small hereditary aristocracy (political upper class).

Antony came into the office at a critical time. Caesar's command in Gaul was coming to an end, and a group in the Senate was set on bringing Caesar to trial for what they saw as his misuse of his power. Caesar depended upon the tribunes to look after his interests in Rome, and Antony did so when he vetoed a decree that required Caesar and the men he commanded to lay down their arms. However, when the Senate gave its officers special powers to "preserve the state," Antony felt that the measure would be used against him and he fled to Caesar. By doing so, he gave Caesar the opportunity to assert his power, because he could claim he was defending the people's representatives—the tribunes—against the power of the Senate.



Mark Antony.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

A series of civil wars followed that pitted Caesar and the armies and politicians loyal to him against the forces of Pompey (106–48 B.C.E.), the leader of the Senate faction. Under Caesar, Antony was given several important military assignments and distinguished himself. After Caesar defeated Pompey, Antony returned to Italy as Caesar's second in command. In 45 B.C.E. Caesar designated him as consul (a one-year position that was one of the most powerful in Roman government) for 44 B.C.E.

Once again Antony found himself in a key position at an important time. Caesar was rapidly moving in the direction of a govern-

ment in which he would hold king-like powers. As a result, a plot formed to eliminate Caesar. On March 15, 44 B.C.E., he was assassinated. Antony was spared on the grounds that the aim of the plot was to remove an illegal ruler, and that killing the consul, who was the chief legitimate officer of the Roman state, would reflect poorly on the cause.

Second Triumvirate

With Caesar's death, Antony was forced to fight a two-front war. One front was against those who had plotted to kill Caesar. The other was with Caesar's supporters, who were undecided on how to avenge Caesar and as to who would lead them. Antony might have ensured his leadership without difficulty if the young Octavian, nephew of Caesar, had not appeared, claiming to be Caesar's adopted son and heir and also demanding to be given Caesar's political power.

Antony tried to strengthen his position by attempting to gain a new five-year command in Gaul, but Octavian skillfully lured some of Antony's legions (the largest unit in the Roman military) to his side. In the clash that followed, Antony's forces attacked Decimus Brutus (a leader of the plotters), but he was in turn attacked by the armies of Octavian and the consuls. He was defeated and forced to retreat north.

In the following months Antony strengthened himself with the armies of the western Roman Empire; while Octavian, realizing that the Senate was trying to use him, began to establish an alliance with Antony. The result was the formation of the Second Triumvirate of Antony, Octavian, and Lepidus (c. 90–13 B.C.E.), another of Caesar's for-

mer officers. As a triumvirate (consisting of three governing officials called triumvirs), they assumed absolute authority for ruling the empire, although Anthony and Octavian soon edged Lepidus out of power. Unlike an earlier triumvirate consisting of Caesar, Pompey, and the politician Crassus (c. 115–53 B.C.E.), which was a mere political alliance, the Second Triumvirate became a constitutionally established body for ruling the state. Octavian assumed control in the west, Antony in the east, and Lepidus (for a time) in Africa.

Antony and Octavian now moved eastward to face the army of those who had killed Caesar. The two forces met at Philippi, Greece, in 42 B.C.E., where Antony's military skill led to victory.

Antony and Cleopatra

After this battle Antony's career entered its most famous period. While Octavian returned to Italy, Antony went east to put affairs in order in the eastern provinces. He also prepared a war against Parthia (located in present-day Iran), and, needing Egyptian support, he met with Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, in 41 B.C.E. An immediate romance followed. This was interrupted when the news arrived that Antony's brother and wife were openly defying Octavian in Italy. Antony moved back west and peace was patched up in 40 B.C.E. with Antony's wedding to Octavian's sister, Octavia, after the death of Antony's first wife.

Antony soon went east again, beating back the Parthians. In 36 B.C.E. he again took up his affair with Cleopatra, becoming involved with her both romantically and politically. Cleopatra saw her alliance with

Antony as a wonderful opportunity to revive the past glories of the Ptolemies, the royal family line from which she was descended. What Antony's ideas were is not clear. He was certainly was dependent on Cleopatra for money, and he did cede (give) territory and grant titles to Cleopatra's family.

Octavian's triumph

At the close of 33 B.C.E. the Second Triumvirate legally came to an end. At the same time the crisis between Octavian and Antony was reaching a climax. Antony still had support in Rome. Octavian turned public opinion against Antony, however, doing so by announcing Antony's divorce of Octavia for Cleopatra, reading Antony's will (in which his strong ties to Cleopatra were stressed), and starting rumors against Antony.

Octavian gathered support in Italy, while Antony's Roman friends had mixed emotions about waging war on the side of the Egyptian queen. The two men and their armies met off at Actium, Greece, on September 2, 31 B.C.E. In a confused battle Antony's fleet was defeated. He fled back to Egypt with Cleopatra. Upon Octavian's arrival in Egypt, Antony committed suicide. Octavian went on to become the first emperor of Rome, taking the name Augustus.

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THURGOOD MARSHALL

Born: July 2, 1908

Baltimore, Maryland

Died: January 24, 1993

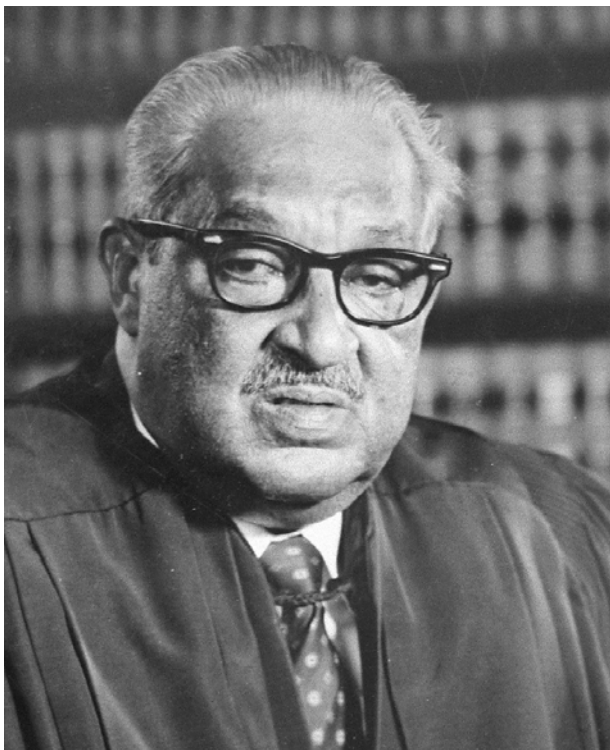
Bethesda, Maryland

African American Supreme Court justice and lawyer

Thurgood Marshall was an American civil rights lawyer, solicitor general, and the first African American to serve as associate justice of the U.S. Supreme Court. During his decades-long law career, Marshall worked for civil rights for all Americans.

Early life and schooling

Thurgood Marshall was born on July 2, 1908, in Baltimore, Maryland. He was the second child born to Norma Arica Williams, an elementary school teacher, and William Canfield Marshall, a waiter and country club steward. His family enjoyed a comfortable, middle-class existence. Marshall's parents placed great emphasis on education, encouraging Thurgood and his brother to think and learn. Whenever Thurgood got into trouble at school, he was made to memorize sections of the U.S. Constitution. This well-intended punishment would serve him well in his later legal career.



Thurgood Marshall.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Marshall attended Lincoln University in Pennsylvania, working a number of jobs to pay his tuition. He became more serious about his studies after being suspended briefly in his second year. After receiving his bachelor's degree, he enrolled in the law school at Howard University in Washington, D.C., in 1930 and graduated in 1933. While at Howard he was influenced by Charles Houston (1895–1950) and other legal scholars who developed and perfected methods for winning civil rights lawsuits.

Civil rights lawyer

Passing the Maryland bar exam (an exam that is given by the body that governs law

and that must be passed before one is allowed to practice law) in 1933, Marshall practiced in Baltimore until 1938. He also served as counsel for the Baltimore branch of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). In 1935 he successfully attacked segregation (separation based on race) and discrimination (unequal treatment) in education when he participated in the desegregation of the University of Maryland Law School, to which he had been denied admission because of his race. Marshall became director of the NAACP's Legal Defense and Education Fund in 1939. A year earlier he had been admitted to practice before the U.S. Supreme Court, the U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals for the fourth, fifth, and eighth circuits, and the U.S. District Court for the Eastern District of Louisiana.

After winning twenty-nine of the thirty-two civil rights cases that he brought before the Supreme Court, Marshall earned the reputation of "America's outstanding civil rights lawyer." During the trials, he and his aides were often threatened with death in the lower courts of some southern states. Some of the important cases he argued became landmarks in the ending of segregation as well as constitutional precedents (examples to help justify similar decisions in the future) with their decisions. These include *Smith v. Allwright* (1944), which gave African Americans the right to vote in Democratic primary elections; *Morgan v. Virginia* (1946), which outlawed the state's policy of segregation as it applied to bus transportation between different states; and *Sweatt v. Painter* (1950), requiring the admission of an African American student to the University of Texas Law School. The most famous was *Brown v. Board of Edu-*

cation (1954), which outlawed segregation in public schools and more or less ended the practice once and for all. In addition, the NAACP sent Marshall to Japan and Korea in 1951 to investigate complaints that African American soldiers convicted by U.S. Army courts-martial had not received fair trials. His appeal arguments led to reduced sentences for twenty-two of the forty soldiers.

Presidential appointments

President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) nominated Marshall in September 1961 for judge of the Second Court of Appeals. Marshall was confirmed by the Senate a year later after undergoing extensive hearings. Three years later Marshall accepted an appointment from President Lyndon Johnson (1908–1973) as solicitor general. In this post Marshall successfully defended the United States in a number of important cases concerning industry. Through his office he now defended civil rights actions on behalf of the American people instead of (as in his NAACP days) as counsel strictly for African Americans. However, he personally did not argue cases in which he had previously been involved.

In 1967 President Johnson nominated Marshall as associate justice to the U.S. Supreme Court. Marshall's nomination was strongly opposed by several southern senators on the Judiciary Committee, but in the end he was confirmed by a vote of sixty-nine to eleven. He took his seat on October 2, 1967, becoming the first African American justice to sit on the Supreme Court. During his time on the Supreme Court, he remained a strong believer in individual rights and never wavered in his devotion to end discrimination. He was a key part of the Court's progressive

majority that voted to uphold a woman's right to abortion (a woman's right to end a pregnancy). His majority opinions (statements issued by a judge) covered such areas as the environment, the right of appeal of persons convicted of drug charges, failure to report for and submit to service in the U.S. armed forces, and the rights of Native Americans.

Later years

The years when Ronald Reagan (1911–) and George Bush (1924–) occupied the White House were a time of sadness for Marshall, as the influence of liberals (those open to and interested in change) on the Supreme Court declined. In 1987 Marshall negatively criticized President Reagan in an interview with *Ebony* as “the bottom” in terms of his commitment to African Americans. He later told the magazine, “I wouldn't do the job of dogcatcher for Ronald Reagan.” Marshall viewed the actions of the conservative (those interested in maintaining traditions) Republican presidents as a step back to the days when “we (African Americans) didn't really have a chance.” Marshall was greatly disappointed when his friend and liberal colleague (coworker), Justice William J. Brennan Jr. (1906–1997), retired from the Supreme Court because of ill health. Marshall vowed to serve until he was 110; however, he was finally forced by illness to give up his seat in 1991. He died in 1993 at the age of eighty-four.

Justice Marshall had been born during the administration of Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) but had lived to see African Americans rise to positions of power and influence in America. To a great degree, the progress of African Americans toward equal opportunity was aided by the legal victories

won by him. By his death, he was considered a hero. His numerous honors included more than twenty honorary degrees from educational institutions in America and abroad. The University of Maryland Law School was named in his honor, as were a variety of elementary and secondary schools around the nation. During his life he received the NAACP's Spingarn Medal (1946), the Negro Newspaper Publisher Association's Russwurm Medal (1948), and the Living Makers of Negro History Award of the Iota Phi Lambda Sorority (1950). His name was inscribed on the honor roll of the Schomburg History Collection of New York for the advancement of race relations. He enjoyed family life with his second wife and their two sons, who themselves pursued careers in public life. Dignified and solemn in manner, but blessed with a sense of humor, Marshall's career was an example of the power and possibility of American democracy.

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KARL MARX

Born: May 5, 1818

Trier, Germany (formerly in Rhenish Prussia)

Died: March 14, 1883

London, England

German philosopher and political leader

The German philosopher, revolutionary economist (one who studies the use of money and other material funds), and leader Karl Marx founded modern “scientific” socialism (a system of society in which no property is held as private). His basic ideas—known as Marxism—form the foundation of Socialist and Communist (an economic and government system characterized by citizens holding all property and goods in common) movements throughout the world.

Early life

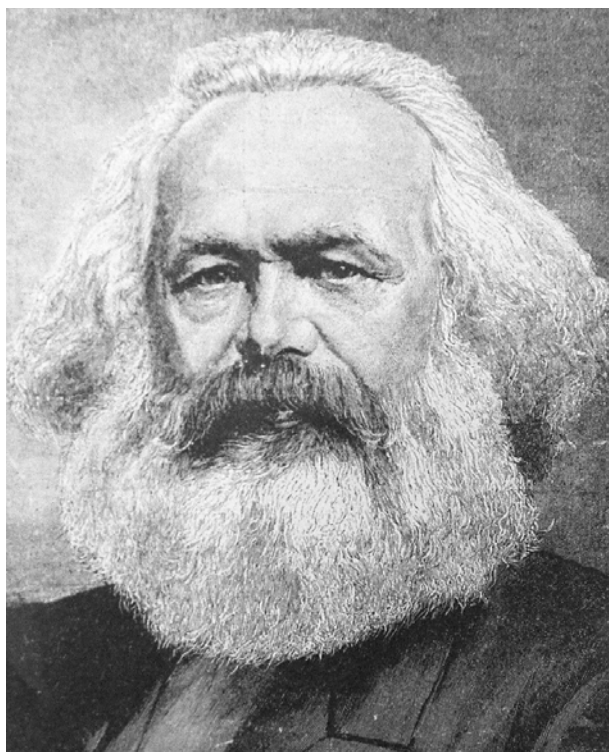
Karl Heinrich Marx was born in Trier, Rhenish Prussia (present-day Germany), on May 5, 1818, the son of Heinrich Marx, a lawyer, and Henriette Presburg Marx, a Dutchwoman. Both Heinrich and Henriette were descendants of a long line of rabbis (masters or teachers of Jewish religion). Barred from the practice of law because he was Jewish, Heinrich Marx converted to Lutheranism about 1817. Karl was baptized in the same church in 1824 at the age of six.

Karl attended a Lutheran elementary school but later became an atheist (one who does not believe in the existence of God) and a materialist (one who believes that physical matter is all that is real), rejecting both the Christian and Jewish religions. It was he who coined the saying “Religion is the opium [drug that deadens pain, is today illegal, and comes from the poppy flower] of the people,” a basic principle in modern communism.

Karl attended the Friedrich Wilhelm Gymnasium in Trier for five years, graduating in 1835 at the age of seventeen. The gymnasium’s program was the usual classical one—history, mathematics, literature, and languages, particularly Greek and Latin. Karl became very skillful in French and Latin, both of which he learned to read and write fluently. In later years he taught himself other languages, so that as a mature scholar he could also read Spanish, Italian, Dutch, Scandinavian, Russian, and English. As his articles in the *New York Daily Tribune* show, he came to handle the English language masterfully (he loved Shakespeare [1564–1616], whose works he knew by heart), although he never lost his heavy German accent when speaking.

Young adult years

In October 1835 Marx enrolled in Bonn University in Bonn, Germany, where he attended courses primarily in law, as it was his father’s desire that he become a lawyer. Marx, however, was more interested in philosophy (the study of knowledge) and literature than in law. He wanted to be a poet and dramatist (one who writes plays). In his student days he wrote a great deal of poetry—most of it preserved—that in his mature years he rightly recognized as imitative and



Karl Marx.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

unremarkable. He spent a year at Bonn, studying little but partying and drinking a lot. He also piled up heavy debts.

Marx’s dismayed father took him out of Bonn and had him enter the University of Berlin, then a center of intellectual discussion. In Berlin a circle of brilliant thinkers was challenging existing institutions and ideas, including religion, philosophy, ethics (the study of good and bad involving morals), and politics. Marx joined this group of radical (extreme in opinion) thinkers wholeheartedly. He spent more than four years in Berlin, completing his studies with a doctoral degree in March 1841.

Forced to move on

Marx then turned to writing and journalism to support himself. In 1842 he became editor of the liberal (open to new ideas) Cologne newspaper *Rheinische Zeitung*, but the Berlin government prohibited it from being published the following year. In January 1845 Marx was expelled from France “at the instigation [order] of the Prussian government,” as he said. He moved to Brussels, Belgium, where he founded the German Workers’ Party and was active in the Communist League. Here he wrote the famous *Manifesto of the Communist Party* (known as the *Communist Manifesto*). Expelled (forced out) by the Belgian government, Marx moved back to Cologne, where he became editor of the *Neue Rheinische Zeitung* in June 1848. Less than a year later, the Prussian government stopped the paper, and Marx himself was exiled (forced to leave). He went to Paris, but in September the French government expelled him again. Marx finally settled in London, England, where he lived as a stateless exile (Britain denied him citizenship and Prussia refused to take him back as a citizen) for the rest of his life.

In London Marx’s sole means of support was journalism. He wrote for both German- and English-language publications. From August 1852 to March 1862 he was correspondent for the *New York Daily Tribune*, contributing a total of about 355 articles. Journalism, however, paid very poorly; Marx was literally saved from starvation by the financial support of friend and fellow writer, Friedrich Engels (1820–1895). In London in 1864 Marx helped to found the International Workingmen’s Association (known as the First International), for which he wrote the

inaugural (opening) address. Thereafter Marx’s political activities were limited mainly to exchanging letters with radicals in Europe and America, offering advice, and helping to shape the socialist and labor movements.

Personal life

Marx was married to his childhood sweetheart, Jenny von Westphalen, who was known as the “most beautiful girl in Trier,” on June 19, 1843. She was totally devoted to him. She died of cancer on December 2, 1881, at the age of sixty-seven. For Marx it was a blow from which he never recovered.

The Marxes had seven children, four of whom died in infancy or childhood. He deeply loved his daughters, who, in turn, adored him. Of the three surviving daughters—Jenny, Laura, and Eleanor—two married Frenchmen. Both of Marx’s sons-in-law became prominent French socialists and members of Parliament. Eleanor was active as a British labor organizer.

Marx spent most of his working time in the British Museum, doing research both for his newspaper articles and his books. In preparation for *Das Kapital*, he read every available work in economic and financial theory and practice.

Marx’s excessive smoking, wine drinking, and love of heavily spiced foods may have been contributing causes to his illnesses. In the final dozen years of his life, he could no longer do any continuous intellectual work. He died in his armchair in London on March 14, 1883, about two months before his sixty-fifth birthday. He lies buried in London’s Highgate Cemetery, where his grave is marked by a bust (sculpture of a person’s head and shoulders) of him.

His works

Marxism achieved its first great triumph in the Russian Revolution (1917–21; when the lower class overthrew three hundred years of czar rule), when its successful leader, Vladimir Ilich Lenin (1870–1924), a lifelong follower of Marx, organized the Soviet Union as a proletarian dictatorship (country ruled by the lower class). Lenin based the new government on Marx's philosophy as Lenin interpreted it. Thus, Marx became a world figure and his theories became a subject of universal attention and controversy (open to dispute). Marx wrote hundreds of articles, brochures, and reports, but only five books.

His ideas

Marx's universal appeal lies in his moral approach to socio-economic problems, in his insights into the relationships between institutions and values, and in his ideas about the salvation (to save from destruction) of mankind. Hence Marx is best understood if one studies not only his economics, but also his theory of history and politics. The central idea in Marx's thought involves two basic notions: that the economic system at any given time determines the current ideas; and that history is an ongoing process keeping up with the economic institutions that change in regular stages.

To Marx, capitalism (an economic system characterized by private or corporate ownership of goods) was the last stage of historical development before communism. The lowest social or economic class of a community, when produced by capitalism, is the last historical class. The two are fated to be in conflict—the class struggle, which Marx wrote of in the *Communist Manifesto*—until

the lower class inevitably wins. The proletarian dictatorship, in turn, develops into communism, in which there are no classes and no inequalities. The logical suggestion is that with the final establishment of communism, history comes to a sudden end. This Marxist interpretation has been criticized in the non-communist world as historically inaccurate, scientifically weak, and logically ridiculous. Nevertheless, Marx's message of an earthly paradise (a classless society) has provided millions with hope and a new meaning of life. From this point of view, one may agree with the Austrian economist Joseph A. Schumpeter that "Marxism is a religion" and Marx is its "prophet."

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MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS

Born: c. December, 1542

Linlithgow, Scotland

Died: February 8, 1587

Northamptonshire, England

Scottish queen

Mary, Queen of Scots was queen of France and Scotland. She was also a claimant (someone who has a legal claim to be the lawful ruler) to the throne of England. She represented a great hope to Catholics in England who wanted a Catholic ruler on the throne. This hope failed when Mary was unable to unseat her cousin and rival, Elizabeth I (1533–1603), the Protestant English queen.

An infant queen

The relations of England, Scotland, and France in the mid-sixteenth century were strongly based on religious loyalties and conflicts. Protestant rulers prevailed in England, while the Catholic powers of France and Scotland became allies.

Mary Stuart (the future Mary, Queen of Scots) was the third child of King James V (1512–1542) and Mary of Guise, the rulers of Scotland. Both of her brothers had died before she was born at Linlithgow Palace in Linlithgow, Scotland, in December of 1542. Her father died only a week after her birth, and the infant princess became Mary, Queen of Scots. The period following the death of James V was an unhappy one for Scotland. In 1547 an English invasion led to the military occupation of the country. One of the chief results of this action was Scotland's tighter alliance with France. As a result, when Mary was five, the Scottish court arranged for her marriage to the four-year-old dauphin (heir to the throne) of France, the future King Francis II. She was sent to France immediately.

In France, Mary grew up with her future husband. The two children became close friends, though she was the more outgoing

and energetic of the two. Mary was educated with the dauphin and the other French royal children. She appears to have been a quick and able student whose charming personality had a great impact on all around her.

Meanwhile, Mary's home country of Scotland was under heavy French influence. Mary's mother, Mary of Guise, was appointed regent (the title given to someone who rules when the legal king or queen is absent, too young, or too ill to take the throne). Her government placed many Frenchmen in positions of power. Encouraged by Protestants in that country, a feeling of resentment against the French grew in Scotland.

Queen of France

In April 1558, at age fifteen, Mary married Francis. In November of the same year the Queen of England, Mary Tudor, died. Mary Stuart made a claim to the English throne, basing the claim on the fact that she was the great-granddaughter of the English king Henry VII and on the grounds that Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate (the child of an unmarried couple).

Mary's claim had no effect, and Elizabeth became queen (taking the title Elizabeth I) without opposition in England. However, Mary and Francis assumed the royal titles of England and Ireland, calling themselves the rightful rulers of those countries. They continued to use these titles when they became the rulers of France in July 1559. After taking the throne, Mary's husband, Francis II, ruled in France for only a little over a year, dying in December 1560. In 1561, Mary returned to Scotland, attempting to reassert her power there. Protestants had gained power in Scotland while Mary was absent, but she

intended to renew Catholic influence in her county.

Rule in Scotland

Elizabeth I's policy toward Mary was confusing. She saw that Mary was a threat, but she was unwilling to question the authority of another legitimate ruler (a king or queen who has a clear legal claim to the throne). Her policy shifted between attacking Mary when she was strong and aiding her when she was weak. For some seven years Mary held her position as queen of Scotland, but her permanent success in this position was unlikely, since Mary was clearly in conflict with important elements in Scotland.

In July 1565 Mary married for political purposes, rather than love. Mary became the wife of Henry, Lord Darnley, a move which strengthened her claims as heir to the throne of England, since Darnley was related to the English royal line. However, the marriage had somewhat different political results from those Mary hoped for. The Protestant lords of Scotland rebelled, led by the Earl of Moray and with support from Queen Elizabeth.

Mary was able to halt this threat by military force, but she could not prevent the harm done by the unpleasant personality of Darnley himself. She turned for comfort to her Italian secretary, David Riccio. Darnley, in turn, formed an alliance with the Protestant lords. On March 9, 1566, Darnley and the nobles dragged Riccio from Mary's room and murdered him. Within a short period, Moray and the other exiled rebel leaders had returned.



Mary, Queen of Scots.

Darnley's murder

Though Mary gave birth to a son (the later James VI of Scotland and James I of England) in June 1566, she was never close to Darnley again. Instead, she secretly became close to one of the Protestant lords, the Earl of Bothwell. In February 1567 Darnley was murdered when the house in which he had been staying was destroyed by a violent explosion, and evidence suggested that Mary and Bothwell had plotted Darnley's death.

Suspensions against Mary were strengthened when she did little to investigate the murder, allowed herself to be kidnapped by Bothwell, and then married him in May

1567. The events led to a Scottish civil war, during which Mary was captured and forced to abdicate (give up the throne). After close to a year of confinement, she escaped and once again raised a group of supporters. After these supporters were defeated at the Battle of Langside (May 13, 1568), Mary crossed the border into England on May 16, 1568. She was now a refugee from the Scotland she had tried to rule.

Elizabeth and Mary

Mary's move had placed Elizabeth in an awkward position. Elizabeth was not in favor of having the Catholic claimant to the English throne so close. But she also did not want to use English military force against the Scottish Protestants on Mary's behalf, and she did not wish Mary to take refuge in some Catholic court in another country. Elizabeth was also troubled by her own feelings about the divine nature of a monarch (the belief that a legitimate king or queen's power was a "divine right" to rule given by God). If Mary could be robbed of her divine right to rule, that seemed to suggest that Elizabeth could be removed from the throne by force as well.

Elizabeth decided, in a sense, to sit in judgment on Mary's case. A English commission met and ruled that the rebel government of Moray in Scotland was to remain in place for the time being, and that Mary was to remain in England.

Mary lived in England for the rest of her life and was virtually a prisoner there. Soon after her arrival, she became the center of Catholic plots to unseat Elizabeth. Although she was closely watched by the authorities, she continued to plan with her Catholic allies to escape and take the English throne. In

some cases Mary played a direct part in these plans; in others she was simply the cause for which the rebels gathered. However, in 1586 the English government uncovered the details of yet another plot, with evidence that included a letter from Mary that consented to the assassination (murder) of Elizabeth. Orders were given for Mary's trial, and she was found guilty in October 1586.

Parliament (the English houses of government) demanded Mary's execution, and she was put to death on February 8, 1587. Although Elizabeth seemed greatly displeased by this event in public, realistically she knew that the action was necessary. With Mary's death, the center of Catholic plotting against Elizabeth was removed.

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**COTTON
MATHER**

Born: March 19, 1663

Boston, Massachusetts

Died: February 13, 1728

Boston, Massachusetts

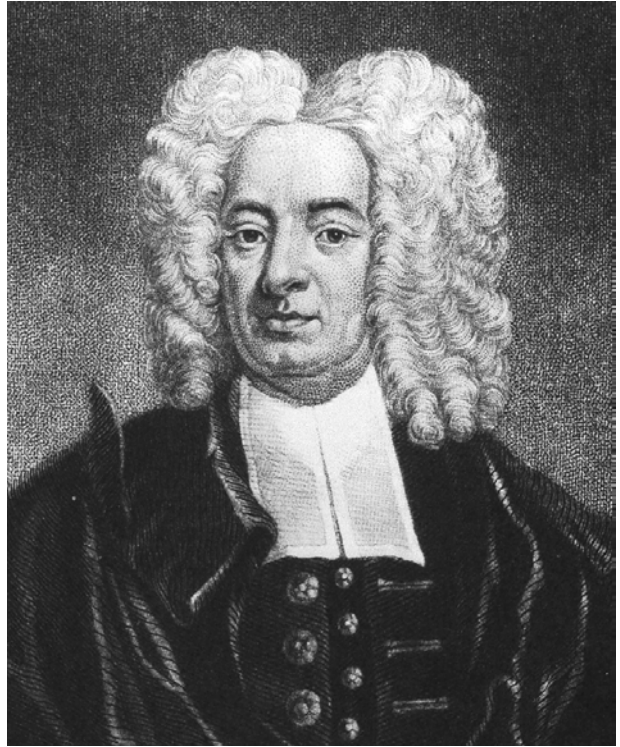
American historian and clergyman

Cotton Mather was a Puritan (a member of a group that broke away from the Church of England in the sixteenth and seventeenth century) preacher, historian (recorder of events and culture of the times), and the youngest man to graduate from Harvard College. Of the third generation of a New England founding family, he is popularly associated with the Salem witchcraft trials (1692–93; trials that took place in Salem, Massachusetts, in which nineteen women were accused, tried, and executed and several others imprisoned for what juries determined was witchcraft).

Early life and education

Born in Boston, Massachusetts, on March 19, 1663, Cotton Mather was the eldest son of Increase and Maria Mather and the grandson of Richard Mather, the first minister of Dorchester, Massachusetts, and of John Cotton, probably the most learned of first-generation American theologians (a specialist in the study of faith and religion). Cotton's father, Increase Mather, was minister to the Second Church in Boston, agent of the colony to England, and nonresident president of Harvard College from 1685 to 1701. Cotton knew he was expected by both his parents to follow in his father's footsteps. That tall order prompted him to be a very serious child whose fear of failing showed up in a stutter when he spoke. It took Cotton years of practice and prayer to overcome this speech problem.

Cotton Mather, having made remarkable progress under his father's training, was admitted to Harvard College at the age of twelve. He had begun studying Hebrew and showed great interest in philosophy (the study of knowl-



*Cotton Mather.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

edge) and science. His father presented Mather's first degree at the age of sixteen. Mather soon took up the study of medicine and, as a young man, attended meetings organized by Increase for scientific experimentation and discussion. At nineteen he received his master's degree. He was made a fellow of Harvard College in 1690 and was involved in the affairs of the college throughout his life. One of his bitterest disappointments was that he was never asked to be its president.

Personal life

Disappointment and grief marked Cotton Mather's life. In 1686 he married Abigail

Philips; they had nine children. She died in 1702. In 1703 he married the widow Mrs. Elizabeth Hubbard; they had six children. She died in 1713. His last wife, Mrs. Lydia George, whom he married in 1715, went insane. Of his fifteen children, only six lived to adulthood and only two outlived him. Three widowed sisters depended largely on him, and he was burdened by severe money problems.

Anxiety and depression contributed to Mather's already impossibly high expectations of himself. But he was a deep thinker. When very young he began to read the Bible daily and to develop habits of prayer. His efforts to do good work and to achieve Christian attitudes lasted a lifetime. His early bitter criticisms of other churches later gave way to a spirit of acceptance. In 1685 Mather was ordained at the Second Church. He served as assistant minister until his father's death in 1723, when Mather became minister.

Witchcraft Trials at Salem

One of Massachusetts governor Sir William Phips's (1651–1695) first acts in office was the establishment of a court to try the suspected witches recently arrested at Salem, Massachusetts. Mather had attempted to show the reality of spirits (bodiless, but sometimes visible supernatural beings, ghosts), particularly evil spirits, in his study *Memorable Providences, Relating to Witchcrafts and Possessions ...* (1689). Although he had urged strong punishment of the devil's work, he suggested much milder punishment than death for those found to be guilty of witchcraft (the use of magic). Mather's approach was both religious and scientific. He separated himself from the trials as such and in fact warned the judges against "spectral

[ghostlike] evidences," but his advice went unheard. In his *Magnalia Christi Americana* (1702) Mather declared his disapproval of the methods used in the trials. But while they were going on, he had not entered public protest.

Other church controversies

A combination of forces diminished Increase and Cotton Mather's influence. A new breed of more open-minded men gathered in the recently established Brattle Church. These, with others, made sure of the removal of Increase from the presidency of Harvard in 1701. The House of Representatives appointed Cotton president, but the voting members of the college overruled their action and passed him by. Cotton then directed his attention to Yale College. But when Yale's president resigned, Cotton, apparently, refused the invitation to replace him. This was Cotton's last opportunity for high office.

Pioneer scientist and intellectual

Although the Mathers maintained clear but hard attitudes toward many cultural and church changes, they were in the intellectual front line of the Colonies. Cotton regularly wrote letters to men of learning around the world. In 1710 he was awarded a doctorate of divinity (highest degree awarded for study of in this case Christianity) by the University of Glasgow (Scotland). In 1713 he had the great honor of being elected to the Royal Society of London. He and Increase were among the first in the Colonies to support vaccinations against smallpox (very contagious disease giving a person sores on the skin, usually fatal) and were threatened for so

doing. With courage (even though a bomb was thrown through the window of Cotton's house), the Mathers, with Dr. Zabdiel Boylston (1679–1766), successfully put the project into effect.

Career as a writer

Despite unpopularity, Mather's activities continued. He wrote in seven languages and also mastered the Iroquois Indian language. In his lifetime three hundred eighty-two of his works were published. These took many forms: history, sermons, biography, fables, books of practical faith, religious and scientific essays, and poetry. Often very educational, his writing could also be straightforward and practical. Mather saw teaching as the main job of good writing.

In the *Psalterium Americanum* (1718) the talented Mather translated the Psalms and adapted them to music. His *Bonifacius, or Essays To Do Good* (1718) gave practical directions for personal faith. A very popular book, Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790) called it the work that most guided his youth.

Probably Mather's greatest work was his *Magnalia Christi Americana* (1702). Primarily a history of New England, it is composed from many of Mather's other writings. The seven sections tell of the settlement of New England, the lives of its governors and ministers, and the story of Harvard College and of the Congregational Church. The *Magnalia* provides a detailed statement of the Puritan mind.

Decline of power

Cotton Mather recorded the passing of an era. The Massachusetts Bay Colony had been an extreme, Bible-based community of "saints," whose existence as an example to

the rest of the world was to be safeguarded till Christ's second coming. In Mather's lifetime the separation of church and state and the development of the frontier and of a society absorbed in business and profits made the people's interest in church lessen. American-born colonists turned to nature and to reason for the sources of their new identity.

Cotton Mather outlived his father by only five years, dying on February 13, 1728, in Boston. Later American writers, Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882), Henry Thoreau (1817–1862), Harriet Beecher Stowe (1811–1896), James Russell Lowell (1819–1891), Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804–1864), and Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807–1882) all acknowledged their debt to him.

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HENRI
MATISSE

Born: December 31, 1869
Le Cateau-Cambrésis, France

Died: November 3, 1954

Cimiez, France

French painter and sculptor

The French painter and sculptor Henri Matisse was one of the great initiators of the modern art movement, which uses the combination of bold primary colors and free, simple forms. He was also the most outstanding personality of the first revolution in twentieth century art—Fauvism (style of art that uses color and sometimes distorted forms to send its message).

Childhood and art education

Henri Matisse was born on December 31, 1869, in Le Cateau-Cambrésis, France. After the war of 1870–71 his family moved to Bohain-en-Vermandois, France. Matisse's father was a corn merchant, his mother an amateur painter. Matisse studied law from 1887 to 1891 and then decided to go to Paris, France, to become a painter. He worked under Adolphe William Bouguereau (1825–1905) at the Académie Julian in Paris, but he left in 1892 to enter the studio of Gustave Moreau (1826–1898) at the École des Beaux-Arts, where he studied until 1897. Moreau was a liberal teacher who did not interfere with the individuality of his pupils. He encouraged his students to look at nature and to paint outdoors, as well as to frequently visit the museums. Matisse copied paintings in the Louvre and painted outdoors in Paris.

Begins with impressionism and moves to Fauvism

About 1898, under the influence of impressionism (an art form using dabs of

paint in primary colors to create an image representing a brief glance rather than a long study), the colors Matisse used became lighter, as in his seascapes of Belle-Île and landscapes of Corsica and the Côte d'Azur (coast of France on the Mediterranean Sea). Although impressionist in character, these early works of Matisse already showed a noticeable emphasis on color and simplified forms. Matisse married in 1898 and visited London, England, in the same year to study. On his return to Paris he attended classes at the Académie Carrière, where he met André Derain (1880–1954). Matisse created his first sculptures in 1899.

From 1900 Matisse struggled financially for years. In 1902 the artist, his wife Amélie, and their three children were forced to return to Bohain. In 1903 the Salon d'Automne was founded, and Matisse exhibited there. From 1900 to 1903, under the influence of Paul Cézanne (1839–1906), Matisse produced still lifes and nudes. In 1904 he had his first one-man show at the gallery of Ambroise Vollard in Paris and spent the summer in Saint-Tropez, France. In 1905 Matisse painted with Derain at Collioure; the works Matisse created there are excellent examples of Fauvism in their bright colors and flat patterning.

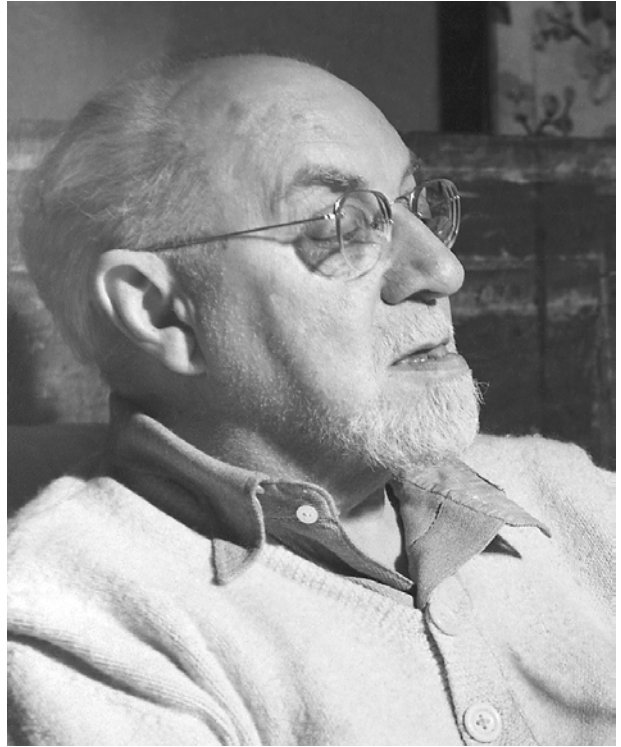
Fauve period

Matisse's Fauve period extended from 1905 to 1908, during which time he completed a brilliant series of masterpieces. At the 1905 Salon d'Automne these paintings, known as the Fauves, made their first public appearance. In 1906 Matisse's *Joie de vivre* was exhibited at the Indépendants; the painting gained him the title of the "King of the Fauves."

Matisse made his first trip to North Africa in 1906. His *Blue Nude, or Souvenir de Biskra* (1907), is a memento of the journey. In this painting he experimented with contrapposto (an S-curve pose), and he used the same form in the sculpture *Reclining Nude I* (1907). He had established a studio in the former Convent des Oiseaux in 1905; this became a meeting place for foreign artists. He developed into the leader of an international art school with mainly German and Scandinavian pupils who spread his ideas. His “Notes of a Painter,” published in *La Grande revue* in 1908, became the artistic handbook of a whole generation. Matisse was a pleasant man who looked more like a shy government official than an artist. He never accepted any fees for his teaching so that he was not obligated to staying in one place. He did not want commitments to interfere with his creative activity.

Change in style

Between 1908 and 1913 Matisse made journeys to Spain, Germany, Russia, and Africa. In Munich, Germany, he saw an exhibition of Islamic art (1910), and in Moscow, Russia, he studied Russian icons (1911). Russian collectors began to buy his paintings. He produced five sculptures—heads of Jeanette—during 1910 and 1911, which show a resemblance to African masks and sculptures. His Moroccan journey of 1911–12 had a positive influence on his development, which is seen in *Dance, Music, the Red Fishes*, and the series of interiors recording his studio and its contents. They show a stern and compact style with blacks and grays, mauves, greens, and ochers (brown tones). Great Matisse exhibitions were held in 1910, 1913, and 1919.



Henri Matisse.

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By 1919 Matisse had become an internationally known master. His style at that time was characterized by the use of pure colors and their complex interplay (harmonies and contrasts); the two-dimensionality of the picture surface enriched by decorative patterns taken from wallpapers, Oriental carpets, and fabrics; the human figures being treated in the same manner as the decorative elements. The goal of Matisse's art was the portrayal of the joyful living in contrast to the stresses of our technological age. Between 1920 and 1925 he completed a series of odalisques (female slaves), such as the *Odalisque with Raised Arms*; this period has been called an oasis of lightness.

Last years

In 1925 Matisse was made chevalier, the lowest ranking member of the Legion of Honor, and in 1927 he received the first prize at the Carnegie International Exhibition at Pittsburgh. After a visit to Tahiti, Matisse was a guest at the Barnes Foundation at Merion, Pennsylvania, and accepted Dr. Barnes's commission to paint a mural, *The Dance* (1932–1933), for the hall of the foundation. During the next years he produced paintings, drawings, book illustrations (etchings and lithographs), sculptures (he made fifty-four bronzes altogether), ballet sets, and designs for tapestry and glass. In 1944 Pablo Picasso (1881–1973) arranged for him to be represented in the Salon d'Automne to celebrate the liberation of Paris from Nazi rule.

Matisse considered the peak of his life-work to be his design and decoration of the Chapel of the Rosary for the Dominican nuns at Vence, France (1948–1951). He designed the black-and-white tile pictures, stained glass, altar crucifix, and vestments (ceremonial robes). At the time of the consecration (declaration of sacredness) of the Vence chapel, Matisse held a large retrospective exhibition (a look back at the work he created) in the Museum of Modern Art in New York City.

The ultimate step in the art of Matisse was taken in his *papiers découpés*, abstract cutouts in colored paper, executed in the mid-1940s, for example, the *Negro Boxer*, *Tristesse du roi*, and *Jazz*. The master died on November 3, 1954, in Cimiez, France, near Nice.

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MAYO BROTHERS

**CHARLES
MAYO**

July 19, 1865

Rochester, Minnesota

May 26, 1939

Chicago, Illinois

American physician

**WILLIAM
MAYO**

June 29, 1861

Le Sueur, Minnesota

July 28, 1939

Rochester, Minnesota

American physician

Brothers and outstanding surgeons (doctors who perform operations) William Mayo and Charles Mayo, along with their father William Worrall Mayo, founded the world-famous Mayo Clinic in Rochester, Minnesota, one of the nation's first efforts at group practice of medicine.

Family practice

William James Mayo was born in Le Sueur, Minnesota, on June 29, 1861. His

brother, Charles Horace, was born four years later in Rochester, Minnesota, on July 19, 1865. They were two of William Worrall Mayo and Louise Abigail Wright Mayo's five children. Their father had come to the United States from England in 1845 and settled in Rochester, Minnesota, as a country doctor. William and Charles studied Latin, art, and the classics at the Rochester Training School. At home their mother taught them botany (the study of plants) and astronomy (the study of the Sun, the Moon, and the stars). Their father gave them instruction in chemistry (the study of simple substances and their physical make-up), anatomy (the study of the structure of living things), and laboratory methods. Both parents taught their children about the evils of prejudice and war and the benefits of working together.

The Mayo brothers frequently accompanied their father on professional visits, observed his diagnoses (identifications of a disease through observation of its symptoms) and methods of treatment, and helped with operations. It is no wonder that they both chose to study medicine. William graduated from the University of Michigan Medical School in 1883 and also took degrees at the New York Post-Graduate Medical School and Hospital in 1884 and at the New York Polyclinic in 1885. He joined his family in practice at Rochester, as did Charles after his 1888 graduation from the Chicago Medical School (later Northwestern University Medical School). William was quiet and reserved; Charles was lively and friendly, with a love of practical jokes. They were known as "Dr. Will" and "Dr. Charlie."

In 1889 the Sisters of Saint Francis opened Saint Mary's Hospital in Rochester



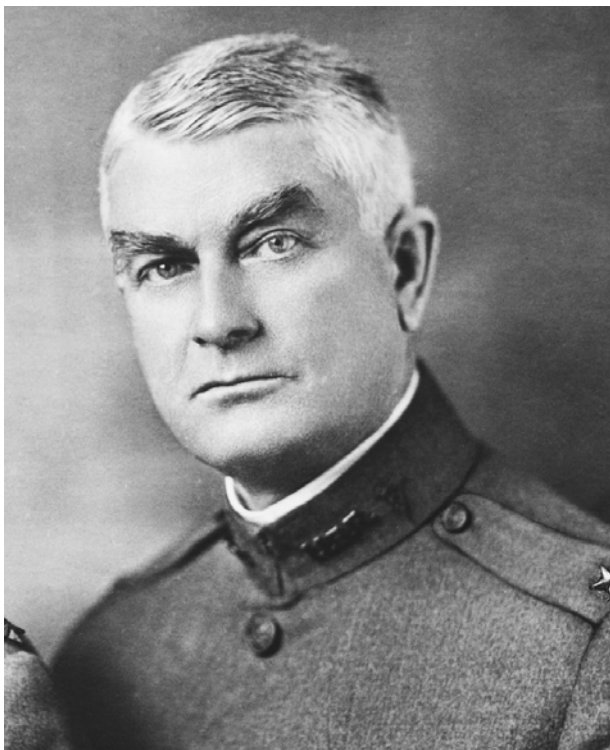
Charles Mayo.

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and asked the Mayo brothers and their father to help in planning the hospital and in attracting the services of skilled doctors. The three Mayos named their part of Saint Mary's the Mayo Clinic in 1903. It began as a surgical clinic but became a full medical center in 1915, and the brothers began to attract other famous physicians from all over the world. At that time they also founded the Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research as part of the University of Minnesota.

Work during wartime

William Mayo was commissioned as a first lieutenant in the army medical reserve



William Mayo.

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corps in 1912. During World War I (1914–18; a war in which the Allies of England, Italy, the United States, and other nations fought against the German-led Central Powers) he served as chief adviser for the surgical services in the office of the army's surgeon general. Charles was a colonel in the army medical corps and alternated with William as the associate chief adviser for all army surgical services. When President Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) organized the Committee of American Physicians for Medical Preparedness in 1916, William was named its chairman and Charles one of its members. When the committee became the General Medical Board of the

Council for National Defense, William was made a member of its executive committee and Charles his alternate.

During World War I, the Mayo Clinic was very busy. There were draftees to examine and war training classes to run for new members of the medical corps. William and Charles designed courses to bring doctors up to date on the latest scientific and surgical developments. Also, before the war the United States had relied heavily on Germany for medical equipment and materials. When the German supply was cut off, American medical workers found it hard to adjust to the poorer quality of American-made medical equipment. Then, in 1918, an outbreak of the flu put extra pressure on the clinic. A hotel next door to the hospital was remodeled and used to handle the overflow of patients.

The two brothers divided their time between the Mayo Clinic and their duties in Washington so that one of them would always be in Rochester. The strain of their war service, added to the effort needed to keep the Mayo Clinic functioning, affected the health of both men. Charles contracted pneumonia (an infection in the lungs) during one of his posts in Washington, and William came down with a severe case of jaundice (a yellowing of the skin) in 1918, which kept him off duty for more than two months. In William's absence Charles filled his post in Washington, making this the first time that the brothers were both absent from the clinic for any extended period.

Postwar prejudice

After the war ended, the prejudice it had stirred up remained. For many years American medical students had taken for granted

that part of their training would take place in Germany and Austria, in the classes and laboratories of the European masters of surgery and medical science. But after the war anti-German feelings led many to question the belief that German medical knowledge was the best. German scientists and physicians were accused of stealing ideas from British and American thinkers.

While William and Charles Mayo were not very fond of the Germans, they were not willing to see such feelings translated into action against individuals. When the 1918 meeting of the American Surgical Association suggested that the German and Austrian honorary (achieving a title without having to meet the usual requirements) members be removed from the group, William strongly opposed the idea, insisting that political and military conflict should not extend into the world of science. The resolution banning the Germans and Austrians failed to pass at that session but was adopted at the next one, when William was not able to attend.

Later years

War service gave many physicians their first taste of teamwork in medical practice. Many did not like it, but increasing costs, decreasing numbers of patients, and unpaid bills led many to follow the example of the Mayo Clinic. The story of the clinic and the Mayo Foundation for Medical Education and Research made the Mayos nationally famous. The national news services printed stories such as the one about the millionaire with a superior air who, seeing William, ran up to demand, "Are you the head doctor here?" "No," William replied with a straight face, "my brother is the head doctor. I'm the belly doctor."

In 1919 William received the U.S. Distinguished Service medal, which Charles was also awarded in 1920. Both brothers continued to practice medicine and perform surgery until they were well into their sixties. William retired in 1928, and a series of strokes brought Charles's career to an end a year and a half later. They are best remembered as a team whose greatest achievement was the clinic built upon their partnership. The famed physicians who had worked together so closely died within a few months of each other in 1939—Charles Mayo on May 26 and William Mayo on July 28.

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WILLIE
MAYS

Born: May 6, 1931

Westfield, Alabama

African American baseball player

During the twenty-one seasons in his major league career, Willie Mays hit more than six hundred home runs. Besides being a solid hitter, Mays also has been called the game's finest defensive outfielder ever and perhaps its best baserunner as well.

Baseball childhood

William Howard Mays Jr. was born on May 6, 1931, in Westfield, Alabama, the son of a steelworker who played center field for the local Birmingham Industrial League semi-pro (a professional league independent of Major League Baseball) team. Mays's mother, Ann, had been a high school track star, and it was clear from a very early age that Willie had inherited his parents' athletic gifts. According to his father, William Howard Mays Sr., young Willie learned to walk at the age of six months, and soon thereafter the two center fielders were playing catch with each other, father instructing son in the basics of the game that would one day make him famous.

The parents of Willie Mays were divorced when he was only three, but Willie continued to live with his father, which meant that he continued to play baseball. It was not long before Mays realized that baseball offered him a way out of the steel mills, and he later admitted that when given the choice he always preferred playing ball to doing schoolwork. Not only did Mays play ball constantly, he would sit in the dugout with his father's Industrial League teammates and listen to baseball strategy and technique, absorbing the game's finer points and learning to be at his ease in a competitive environment. By the age of thirteen, he was playing on a semi-professional team called the Gray Sox.

Negro Leagues

So gifted was Mays as a teenager that he began playing for the Birmingham Black Barons, the local entry in the Negro Leagues, which was then the major leagues for African American players. Playing center field, Mays was paid a salary of \$250 a month to play with the Black Barons, far more money than he could have earned at part-time jobs. He eventually finished high school, but he did so as a professional baseball player.

By the time Mays had secured for himself the center fielder's spot on the Black Barons, legendary ballplayer Jackie Robinson (1919–1972) had broken the color barrier in major league baseball (African Americans were not allowed to play in the major leagues until Robinson joined the Brooklyn Dodgers in 1947), and the Negro Leagues were being scouted heavily by the newly integrated (consisting of players of all races) professional teams. One such scout for the New York Giants came to a Black Barons game to watch a teammate of Mays, but it was Willie Mays who captured his attention; the scout raved to his supervisors in the Giants' organization about him. The Giants had already signed a number of black baseball players, and it was not long before they offered Mays a \$4000 bonus and \$250-a-month salary to play for their minor league team (team controlled by a major league club to develop the talent of its players) in Iowa.

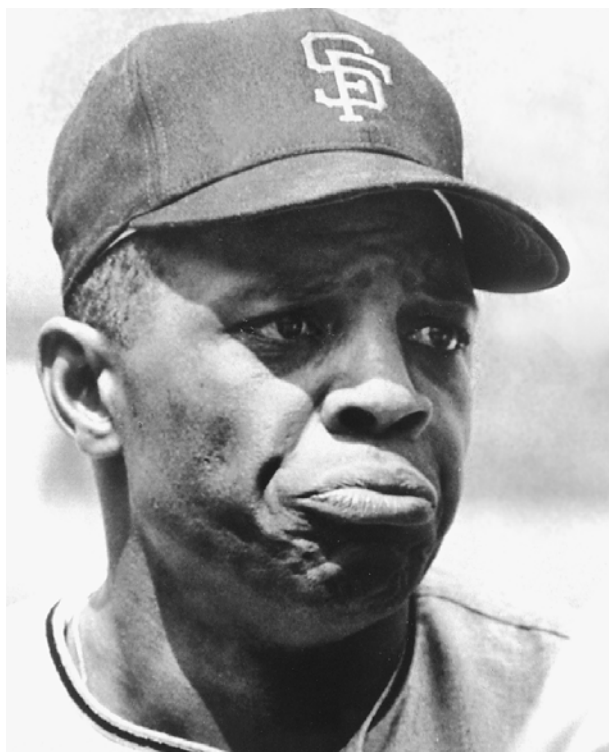
The talk of New York

Through the 1950 and the beginning of the 1951 season Mays tore through the minor leagues and was promoted to the Minneapolis Millers, a AAA club, the last stop before the major leagues. Mays's success was

highly unusual at the AAA level, and his name quickly became familiar to Leo Durocher (1905–1991), the manager of the New York Giants. The Giants were suffering through a poor season in 1951, and Durocher saw no reason to delay the elevation of Mays to the major league level. On May 25, 1951, Mays became the starting center fielder and number-three hitter in the New York Giants' lineup.

By mid-August of the 1951 season, neither the Giants nor their young star appeared to be going anywhere. Mays showed flashes of brilliance but he was still only a rookie, and the Giants remained thirteen and one-half games behind the Brooklyn Dodgers in the National League pennant race. The Giants went on to sweep a three game series with the Dodgers, however, and after winning sixteen games in a row they managed to catch their rivals on the last day of the regular season to force a play-off—three games that would decide the winner of the league championship. In one of the most famous episodes in baseball history, the Giants won the third and deciding game of the play-off. In the World Series, the Giants faced their crosstown rivals, the New York Yankees, and after a fine series the Giants lost in seven games. In recognition of his 20 home runs and .274 batting average during the season Mays was named the National League's Rookie of the Year for 1951.

After a stint in the U.S. Army, Mays returned in 1954, when he led the Giants to a world championship while hitting .345, with 41 home runs, and winning the Most Valuable Player (MVP) Award. Mays led the league in batting average, and in the first game of the World Series he made an over-



Willie Mays.

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the-shoulder catch of such remarkable skill that it has ever since been known simply as "The Catch." Giants' management rewarded Mays with a fat new contract, and he entered the 1955 season as a superstar.

Doing it all

It should not be forgotten that 1954 was Mays's first full season in the big leagues. What is especially remarkable is that the promise shown by his 1954 season would later be confirmed in season after season of excellence, beginning with the 51 homers he clubbed in 1955.

After the 1957 season the Giants left New York for San Francisco, where Mays found it difficult to fit in. Mays eventually learned the tricks of life out west, however, winning over the fans with his routine brilliance on the field and with the bat. In 1962 he led the Giants back to the World Series with a career-high 141 runs batted in; and in the following year he joined an exclusive club by smashing his 400th career homer. It seemed possible that Mays might one day catch Babe Ruth as the all-time leader in home runs.

The only question remaining for Mays was Babe Ruth's (1895–1948) record of 714 career home runs. Mays passed the records of many of the game's all-time greats until at last he trailed only the Babe, by 170 home runs. Mays's many years of continuous effort had taken their toll, however, and after the 1966 season his home runs and batting average both began to drop. But by the time he wound up his career with the New York Mets in 1973, he had made a strong case for himself as the greatest all-around player in baseball history.

The record of his accomplishments is long—the combination of his twenty-four straight All Star Game appearances, his more than 3,000 career base hits, and his first-year election to the baseball Hall of Fame with 94.6 percent of the possible votes was unparalleled—but Mays is remembered as much for the wonderful effortlessness of his play as for the numbers he racked up.

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JOSEPH McCARTHY

Born: November 14, 1908

Grand Chute, Wisconsin

Died: May 2, 1957

Bethesda, Maryland

American senator

Joseph McCarthy, a U.S. senator from Wisconsin, became a national figure in a highly publicized pursuit of a Communist “conspiracy.” Because of him, the term *McCarthyism* became a synonym for a public “witch-hunt” intended to destroy the victim's political standing and public character.

Life in Wisconsin

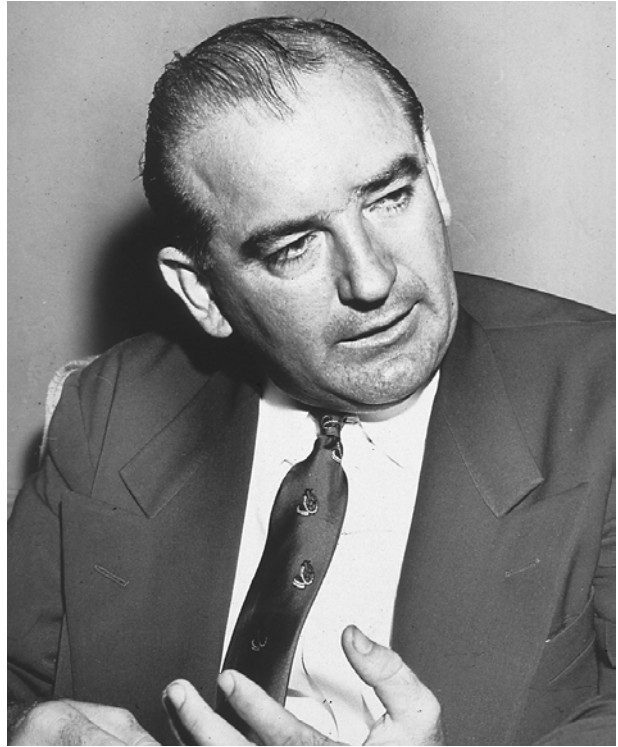
Joseph McCarthy was born on November 14, 1908, on a farm in Grand Chute, Wisconsin. The family was part of the Irish Settlement, a small group surrounded by farmers mainly of German and Dutch descent. His parents were devoted Catholics, literate but uneducated. The fifth of nine children, Joseph seems to have grown up shy and awkward, often rejected by his peers but favored by a protective mother. At the age of fourteen, after finishing grade school, he took up chicken farming, at which he was briefly successful.

McCarthy moved to the nearby town of Manawa and managed a grocery store. When he was almost twenty he enrolled in high school, graduating in only a single year. After two years as an engineering student at Marquette University, he went to law school and was president of his class. Soon afterward, McCarthy was admitted to the bar, an association for practicing lawyers.

In 1935 McCarthy tried practicing law in several Wisconsin towns, earning a reputation as a fierce gambler along the way. He also began playing the game of politics. After an unsuccessful bid as Democratic candidate for district attorney, he shifted his focus and became the Republican candidate for circuit court judge. He won, and at the age of twenty-nine he became the state's youngest circuit court judge. This victory also hinted at his later methods: He had lied in his campaign literature about his opponent's age (adding seven years to it) and about his own (moving his birth date back). By now, his basic personality was well shaped—clever and ambitious but lacking moral judgment, or the ability to distinguish between right and wrong.

World War II

During World War II (1939–45; a war involving many countries in the world in which the United States participated from 1941 until the end of the war), McCarthy served with the U.S. Marines as a ground officer in the Pacific. He took part in many battles and won several medals for “courageous devotion” while on duty. In 1944, while still in the Marines, his friends in Wisconsin put him on the ballot for the U.S. Senate. He lost the election but placed second and earned more than a hundred thousand votes. Soon afterward McCarthy left the Marines.



Joseph McCarthy.

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In 1945, after returning to Wisconsin, he was reelected as circuit court judge. A year later he ran for senator against Robert M. La Follette (1895–1953) and won. McCarthy had been a poor judge, being involved in at least one suspicious case. He had altered his war record to make it look more heroic, and he again cut moral corners in his campaigning. But he was a fitting candidate for the particular mood and cultural mix of Wisconsin at the time.

McCarthy finds an enemy

McCarthy's first years in the Senate were thoroughly average and at least slightly dis-

honorable. As a number of his past adventures, including some questionable tax returns, began catching up with him, he needed an issue that would distract attention from his affairs. On January 7, 1950, he asked three dinner companions to suggest an issue he could base his campaign on. They suggested communism, a political system in which property and goods are owned by the government and distributed among the people. The timing was perfect, as many in the changing nation feared the presence of communists living among them. Communism would give McCarthy a target. Now he needed to rally support.

In a speech in Wheeling, West Virginia, on February 9, 1950, McCarthy claimed to have in hand a list of 205 people in the State Department known to be members of the American Communist Party. In later speeches and interviews he kept changing the figures, depending on his audience and his mood. On February 20 he held the Senate floor for six hours in a stormy session in which other senators tried to get solid facts from him.

In the 1950 elections McCarthy secured the defeat of several Democratic senators who had dared question and oppose him. He spread terror even among his peers. His fellow Republicans were torn between fear of his skill and willingness to use his attacks on President Harry Truman (1884–1972), Secretary of State Dean Acheson (1893–1971), and former Secretary of State George Marshall (1880–1959).

Takes on the army

In 1952 McCarthy was reelected. He then used his investigative subcommittee as his point of support. He also used the press

and television as his playing field. He even tried to develop a counterintelligence unit of his own inside the administration's agencies. McCarthy finally turned his aim on the army in the Fort Monmouth hearings.

The Army-McCarthy televised hearings ran from April 22 to June 17, 1954, and turned the tables on McCarthy and his committee counsel, Roy Cohn (1927–1986). Evidence proved that they had sought special favors for G. David Schine (1927–1996), a subcommittee staff member, as an army inductee (a person who signs up for training or service in the military). It is hard to guess why McCarthy attacked the army, when he must have known that his anti-Communist views could not stand a chance against the distinguished army officers. The intense response of the army's legal representative, Joseph Welch (1890–1960), to McCarthy's attack on a member of Welch's firm marked the end.

In December the Senate passed a vote of censure, or an official disapproval, on McCarthy. He died three years later, on May 2, 1957, a broken man whose end had really come at the army hearing, when the nation recoiled from him and his power to inspire terror was halted.

McCarthy and society

Scholars have debated whether McCarthy's views expressed a basic appeal to the majority of Americans. He was often called a fascist, or one who seeks complete control, by liberals and the left. His support came mainly from a desperate group on the right (conservatives) who saw their world threatened by a mysterious conspiracy and were willing to see extreme methods used against it.

McCarthyism came into the nation's history at a moment when Americans were uncertain about their future in a changing world. McCarthy gave this fear the name of communism. He turned communism into a simple target for their hostility. He also came at a time when the cold war and the nuclear arms race had brought on a need for secrecy that led to a paranoid feeling of being surrounded by enemies within.

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HATTIE MCDANIEL

Born: June 10, 1898

Wichita, Kansas

Died: October 26, 1952

Hollywood, California

African American actress and singer

Hattie McDaniel's portrayal of the "mammy" figure in the film *Gone with the Wind*, for which she

received an Academy Award for best supporting actress in 1940, is still widely seen as a role that could only have been played by her. She was the first African American to receive an Oscar.

Hattie's youth

Hattie McDaniel was born on June 10, 1895, in Wichita, Kansas, the youngest of thirteen children in a family of performers. Her father, Henry McDaniel, was a Baptist minister, carpenter, banjo player, and minstrel showman, eventually organizing his own family into a minstrel troupe. Henry married a gospel singer named Susan Holbert in 1875 and moved their growing family to Denver, Colorado, in 1901.

Hattie was one of only two black children in her elementary school class in Denver. Racial prejudice (an unfair judgment based on race) was less hostile in the West than elsewhere in the United States. For her talents as a singer and reciter of poetry, McDaniel became something of a favorite at the 24th Street Elementary School, where mainly white students attended. McDaniel sang at church, at school, and at home; she sang so continuously that her mother reportedly bribed her into silence with spare change. Before long she was also singing in professional minstrel shows, as well as dancing, performing humorous skits, and later writing her own songs.

In 1910 Hattie left school in her sophomore year at East Denver High School and became a full-time minstrel performer, traveling the western states with her father's show and several other troupes. The minstrel shows were usually performed by black actors, but were also sometimes performed



Hattie McDaniel.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

by whites in blackface. The shows presented a variety of entertainment that poked fun at black cultural life for the enjoyment of mostly white audiences.

When Hattie's father retired around 1920, she joined Professor George Morrison's famous "Melody Hounds" on longer and more publicized tours. She also wrote dozens of show tunes such as "Sam Henry Blues," "Poor Wandering Boy Blues," and "Quittin' My Man Today."

Broke into radio and film

McDaniel's first marriage ended brutally in 1922, when her husband of three months,

George Langford, was reportedly killed by gunfire. Her career was much better, including a first radio performance in 1925 on Denver's KOA station. McDaniel was one of the first black women to be heard on American radio.

In 1929 McDaniel was left without a job due to the Great Depression (a time in the late 1920s and 1930s of economic hardship that resulted in unemployment for many), so she went to Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and found work at Sam Pick's Club Madrid—as a bathroom attendant. Eventually she became a performer there and remained at the Club Madrid for about a year. Next she went to Hollywood, California, where her brother and sister lived. Sam and Etta McDaniel had already played small roles in a number of motion pictures. Sam McDaniel had a regular part on the KNX (Los Angeles, California) radio show "The Optimistic Do-Nuts" and was able to get Hattie a small part, which she promptly turned into a big opportunity. McDaniel eventually became a hit with the show's listeners.

A big break came for McDaniel in 1934, when she was cast in the Fox production of *Judge Priest*. In this picture McDaniel was given the opportunity to sing a duet with Will Rogers (1879–1935), the well-known American humorist. Her performance was well received by the press and her fellow actors alike.

In 1935 McDaniel played "Mom Beck" in *The Little Colonel*. A number of African American journalists objected to Hattie's performance in the film. They charged that the character of Mom Beck, a happy black servant in the Old South, implied that black people might have been happier as slaves than they

were as free individuals. This movie marked the beginning of McDaniel's long feud with the more progressive elements of the African American community.

Won Oscar for *Gone with the Wind*

Once established in Hollywood, McDaniel found no shortage of work. In 1936 alone she appeared in twelve films. For the decade as a whole her performances numbered about forty—nearly all of them in the role of maid or cook to a white household. McDaniel won the role of “Mammy” in *Gone with the Wind* over several rivals. Her salary for *Gone with the Wind* was to be \$450 a week, which was much more than what her real-life counterparts could hope to earn.

McDaniel's performance as Mammy in *Gone with the Wind* was more than a bit part. It so impressed the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences that she was awarded the 1940 Oscar for best supporting actress, the first ever won by an African American. McDaniel's award-winning performance was generally seen by the black press as a symbol of progress for African Americans, although some members of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) were still displeased with her work. At the least, her Oscar was a symbol of possible conciliation (the act of settling a dispute) between the races.

Feuds with NAACP

McDaniel spent much of 1940 touring the country as Mammy, and in the following year she appeared in three substantial film roles, earning no less than \$31,000 for her efforts. She was married, for a third time, to James L. Crawford in 1941.

The mid-1940s brought trying times for McDaniel, who experienced a heart-wrenching false pregnancy in 1944 and soon after became the victim of racist-inspired legal problems. The actress found herself in a legal battle over a system in Los Angeles that limited the land and home ownership rights of African Americans. Having purchased a house in 1942, McDaniel faced the possibility of being thrown out of her home. She was one of several black entertainers who challenged the racist system in court, however, and won.

Still, throughout the 1940s a growing number of activists viewed McDaniel and all she represented as damaging to the budding fight for civil rights. NAACP president Walter White pressed both actors and studios to stop making films that tended to ridicule black people, and he singled out the roles of Hattie McDaniel as particularly offensive. In response McDaniel defended her right to choose whichever roles she saw fit, adding that many of her screen roles had shown themselves to be more than equal to that of their white employers.

Renewed success in radio

By the late 1940s McDaniel found herself in a difficult position. She found her screen opportunities disappearing even as she suffered insults from progressive blacks. After her third marriage ended in divorce in 1945, she became increasingly depressed and confused as to her proper path.

McDaniel could still use her vocal talent on radio. In 1947 she won the starring role of “Beulah” on *The Beulah Show*, a CBS radio show about a black maid and the white family for whom she worked. When Hattie

McDaniel took over the role as Beulah, she became the first black performer to star in a radio program intended for a general audience. The program was generally praised by the NAACP and the Urban League, along with the twenty million other Americans who listened to it every evening at the height of its popularity in 1950.

McDaniel's last marriage, to an interior decorator named Larry Williams, lasted only a few months. In 1951 she suffered a heart attack while filming the first few segments of a projected television version of *The Beulah Show*. By summer she was diagnosed with breast cancer. McDaniel died in Hollywood, California, on October 26, 1952. She will always be remembered as Mammy of *Gone with the Wind*.

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JOHN McENROE

Born: February 16, 1959

Wiesbaden, Germany

American tennis player and television commentator

John McEnroe was one of the most successful and high-profile players in the history of tennis. Throughout his career, McEnroe won seventeen Grand Slam titles, seventy-seven career single titles, and seventy-seven doubles titles.

Childhood on the court

John Patrick McEnroe Jr. was born on February 16, 1959, in Wiesbaden, Germany, where his father, John McEnroe Sr., was serving in the United States Air Force, and his mother, Kay McEnroe, was a surgical nurse. He was the oldest of three sons. In 1963 his family moved to Queens, New York, where he was raised. At an early age he showed advanced hand-eye coordination and athletic ability. According to his father, when John Jr. was only two years of age, he could strike a ball with a plastic bat, and at age four he could hit it a considerable distance.

It soon became obvious that McEnroe possessed a great deal of natural ability on the tennis court. Oddly, although he won several junior tournaments, and moved steadily upward in rank, he was never rated number one on the National Junior circuit. In 1970 McEnroe began training with Tony Palafox, a former Davis Cup (an international team tennis tournament) player for Mexico, and Harry "Hop" Hopman, a former Australian Davis Cup coach, at the Port Washington (Long Island) Tennis Academy.

McEnroe attended Trinity School, a well-known and expensive Ivy League preparatory school in Manhattan, where he was known to be funny, witty, and rowdy. He did above average scholastically—although by his own admission, he could have done better if it weren't for his many sports activities: four

years of soccer and tennis as well as two years of basketball.

Youngest win in Wimbledon finals

In 1977, after McEnroe graduated from high school, he was given the opportunity to play in Europe, where he won the French Juniors Tournament. Aiming for the Junior's title at Wimbledon, he had to pull out of the event when he qualified for the men's senior competition. Not only did he qualify for this important tournament, but he advanced to the semi-finals, where he was beaten by the more experienced Jimmy Connors (1952–), who won in four sets. At that time, McEnroe became the youngest man ever to reach the Wimbledon semi-finals. He also solidified his reputation as one of tennis's "bad boys" along with Jimmy Connors and Ilie Nastase (1946–). His disturbing, emotional outbursts were directed at linesmen, opponents, and himself. Although McEnroe played somewhat inconsistently for the remainder of the year, he was voted *Tennis* magazine's Rookie of the Year for 1977.

That fall McEnroe attended Stanford University in Palo Alto, California, on a tennis scholarship. He led the school's tennis team to the NCAA Championship in 1978. After his freshman year he decided to turn professional. In the summer of 1978 McEnroe was eliminated in the first round at Wimbledon but reached the semi-finals of the U.S. Open. By the end of that year, he was ranked sixth in the world in singles and fifth in doubles.

Temper tantrums and superstardom

As McEnroe's talent came to public attention, so did his "superstar" personality. At no tournament did his comments and dis-



John McEnroe.

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ruptive actions stand out more than they did at Wimbledon, which was run by the traditional All England Club. Whether there was any truth to his claims or not, McEnroe believed that the Wimbledon umpires were out to get him. Although McEnroe lost in the fourth round at the 1979 Wimbledon tournament, later that year he bounced back and won his first U.S. Open Championship, defeating fellow New Yorker Vitas Gerulaitis. McEnroe became the youngest player to win the U.S. Open since 1948.

At Wimbledon in July 1980 the world watched as one of tennis's greatest rivalries developed between McEnroe and Bjorn Borg

(1956–). The highlight of the match took place in the fourth set, which went into a tiebreaker. It took twenty-two minutes and thirty-four points for McEnroe to finally win the set. But Borg emerged victorious (1–6, 7–5, 6–3, 6–7, 8–6). It was Borg's fifth consecutive Wimbledon title, but it also showed the world that McEnroe had the endurance and mental toughness to be a top player. The rivals met again at the U.S. Open, where McEnroe found himself defending the title against a determined Borg, who had yet to win the Open. In a match with as many games as their famous Wimbledon final, McEnroe emerged the winner (7–6, 6–1, 6–7, 5–7, 6–4).

The 1981 Wimbledon tournament saw McEnroe and Borg once again in the final. This time McEnroe ended Borg's five year reign as he won in four sets (4–6, 7–6, 7–6, 6–4). That same year, in September, McEnroe defended his U.S. Open title once again against Borg (4–6, 6–2, 6–4, 6–3). Borg, perhaps feeling that his reign was over, retired after this defeat. McEnroe became the only man since Bill Tilden (1893–1953) to win three consecutive U.S. Open titles.

McEnroe's decline and comeback

In 1984 McEnroe won eighty-two of eighty-four matches, including his fourth World Championship of Tennis final, his third U.S. Pro Indoor Championship, and his second Grand Prix Masters title. He captured his third Wimbledon title, soundly defeating Connors (6–1, 6–1, 6–2), and his fourth U.S. Open title (beating Ivan Lendl 6–3, 6–4, 6–1). This victory was to mark the last major title of his career.

In 1986 McEnroe took time away from tennis and married actress Tatum O'Neal, his

girlfriend of two years (after the birth of their first child, Kevin), and retreated to his Malibu, California, home. His break from tennis did not last long as he came back in August to face Boris Becker in a tournament in Stratton Mountain, Vermont. The match invited comparisons to the earlier Borg-McEnroe rivalries. Unfortunately, his comeback never fully took shape. He continued as a Davis Cup player and his successes in Cup play earned him more press than his occasional singles titles. McEnroe, who has four children, divorced O'Neal in 1992. He married singer Patty Smyth in April of 1997. The couple has two daughters.

Sports broadcasting and charity work

In 1995 McEnroe began to call matches with the USA Network's coverage of the French Open. This began his present broadcasting career. He is a network television commentator for both NBC and CBS at Wimbledon, the French Open, and the U.S. Open. He currently competes in a select number of tournaments and special events, largely for charity. In 1999 McEnroe was inducted into the International Tennis Hall of Fame and was named captain of the Davis Cup team.

Although McEnroe's lack of single-minded devotion may have brought his tennis career to a halt, his charitable activities have brought to the public eye a side of him that was not seen during his reign as champion. An avid rock fan and guitar player, McEnroe occasionally plays at charity events. His interest in art led him to open the John McEnroe Art Gallery in New York City, which features up-and-coming young artists.

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TERRY MCMILLAN

Born: October 18, 1951

Port Huron, Michigan

African American writer

Terry McMillan, an African American novelist and short story writer, describes in her works the experiences of urban (city-dwelling) African American women and men.

Early life

The oldest of five children, Terry McMillan was born on October 18, 1951, in Port Huron, Michigan, a mostly white, working-class factory city. Her father, Edward Lewis McMillan, was a blue-collar worker (a person who works somewhere, like a factory, where a uniform or protective clothing is needed). He suffered from tuberculosis (a disease of the lungs) and was confined to a sanitarium (an institution for sick people to rest and recover) during most of McMillan's childhood. He also drank too much and beat his wife. McMillan's parents divorced when she

was thirteen. In order to support the family, her mother, Madeline Tillman, held various jobs as a domestic worker, an auto worker, and a pickle factory employee.

At age sixteen McMillan got a job shelving books in a local library to help her mother provide for the family. There she discovered the world of the imagination. She became a devoted reader, enjoying the works of Nathaniel Hawthorne (1804–1864), Henry David Thoreau (1817–1862), Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882), and Thomas Mann (1875–1955). Reading the works of these great writers led McMillan to believe that the world of literature was a white one. Upon seeing a book by James Baldwin (1924–1987), she was astonished to learn that African Americans also wrote books.

Starts writing in California

When McMillan was seventeen, she left Port Huron and moved to Los Angeles, California, where she worked as a secretary and took a class in African American literature at Los Angeles City College. This course introduced her to the works of such writers as Richard Wright (1908–1960), Zora Neale Hurston (1891–1960), Jean Toomer (1892–1967), and especially Ann Petry (1908–1997), whose novel *The Street*, with its honest and natural account of an African American woman living in a brutal city environment, would greatly influence McMillan's early fiction.

It was during this period of McMillan's life that she started to write. A love poem—the result of a failed relationship—was her first attempt. As she stated in an interview: “That is how it started. It kept going and it started turning into this other stuff, started turning



Terry McMillan.

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into sentences.” McMillan continued her interest in writing and her education by moving to northern California, where she studied journalism at the University of California at Berkeley. While at Berkeley she took a workshop with novelist and critic Ishmael Reed. Reed was excited by McMillan’s writing and encouraged her to continue. He published “The End” (1976), her first short story, in *Yardbird Reader*.

First novels

After McMillan graduated with a bachelor’s degree from Berkeley, she left California and moved to New York City. She joined the Harlem Writers Guild and went to artists’

colonies such as Yaddo in upstate New York and MacDowell in New Hampshire. At MacDowell she finished the first draft of what would become *Mama*, her first novel. Based on her own life, *Mama* (1987) explores the grim and humorous situation of an African American family in a large city. Set in Point Haven, Michigan, and in Los Angeles, the novel revolves around the lives of Mildred Peacock and her five children. Mildred’s oldest daughter, Freda, is sexually abused at fourteen, and her only son, Money, becomes a drug addict who winds up in prison. Despite the sad state of affairs that the Peacock household experiences, Mildred continues to fight to raise her family. Although critics felt the book lacked the focus of novels written by other African American women writers of the time, McMillan’s work was generally greeted with praise.

Disappearing Acts (1989), McMillan’s next novel, charts the love affair between Zora Banks, a junior high school music teacher who dreams of being a singer, and Franklin Swift, a high school dropout and often-unemployed carpenter and construction worker. Told in the first-person narrative voices (a type of storytelling where the narrator is the person engaged in the activity being retold) of Zora and Franklin and set in Brooklyn, New York, the novel is a powerful study of their relationship and the problems that prevent them from finding happiness together. While some reviewers applauded McMillan’s creation of the character of Franklin, many critics cited the novel’s use of slang as a major distraction. “The language that I use is accurate,” McMillan later said in her defense. “That’s the way we talk. And I want to know why I’ve never read a review where they complain about the language that male writers use!”

In 1990 McMillan edited *Breaking Ice: An Anthology of Contemporary African American Fiction*, a collection of stories by other African American writers. Her third novel, *Waiting To Exhale* (1992), describes the lives of Robin, Bernadine, Gloria, and Savannah, four educated African American women living in Phoenix, Arizona, who have an ongoing discussion about their problems in finding and keeping lovers. The book was greeted with tremendous critical and commercial success. By the end of 1996, more than 700,000 copies of the hardcover version and three million copies of the paperback had been sold. The film version, which grossed (earned before subtracting film production costs) \$67 million in its first year, also proved there was a largely untapped African American female audience eager for movies and novels. Critics praised the work as further evidence of McMillan's bold writing talent.

Continued success

Although *Waiting to Exhale* had been very popular, McMillan enjoyed even greater commercial success with her next novel, *How Stella Got Her Groove Back*. The novel had a first printing of 800,000 copies, a huge number for an African American female author, and film rights were sold immediately for a six million dollar advance. Again, McMillan based the story on her own experience, this time focusing on a middle-aged woman who falls for a twenty-year-old while on vacation in Jamaica. As Evette Porter pointed out in an interview with McMillan that appeared in the *Village Voice*, there are many similarities between the novel and its author, including a young Jamaican boyfriend, Jonathan Plummer, who McMillan met on the island. (They were mar-

ried in 1998.) Critics pointed out that the book's similarity to real life should not blur the novel's larger message about exercising personal freedom in the way one chooses to live.

There was no question in the late 1990s that McMillan, a former writing professor at Stanford University, in California, and the University of Wyoming, had established herself as a major novelist and pioneer in a new type of fiction—the African American urban romance novel. As other writers began to publish books with similar themes in an attempt to cash in on the success of McMillan's work, she turned back to the subject of family for her next novel, *A Day Late and a Dollar Short* (2001), which is somewhat similar to her earlier *Mama*.

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AIMEE SEMPLE MCPHERSON

Born: October 9, 1890

Ingersoll, Ontario, Canada

Died: September 27, 1944

Oakland, California

Canadian-born American evangelist



*Aimee Semple McPherson.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Aimee Semple McPherson, American evangelist (one who preaches Christianity), symbolized important traits of American popular religion in the 1920s and 1930s. She was one of the first female evangelists, the first divorced evangelist, and the founder of the Foursquare Gospel church.

Early life

Aimee Kennedy was born on October 9, 1890, near Ingersoll, Ontario, Canada. Her father, James Morgan Kennedy, was a struggling farmer. Her mother, Mildred “Minnie” Pearce was a former member of the Salvation

Army (1865; founded by William Booth [1829–1912] as a religious organization with military structure for the purpose of bettering life for the poor and evangelizing the world). Soon after Aimee’s birth, her mother took her to the Salvation Army and dedicated her to God’s service. Aimee’s training was particularly geared toward religious work.

When Aimee was in high school, she began to question her religious beliefs. At the age of seventeen she went to a religious meeting and experienced Pentecostal (a branch of Christianity that supports individual religious experience and evangelism) conversion under the guidance of Scottish evangelist Robert Semple. In 1908 she married Semple and followed him to China as a missionary (one who travels to spread religious teachings). He died soon after arriving in China, leaving her pregnant and penniless. After the birth of Roberta Star, she returned home and continued her Pentecostal work. She also worked with her mother for the Salvation Army.

Travels

Semple married a New York grocery clerk, Harold S. McPherson, in 1913; this marriage ended in divorce five years later. Thereafter she set out as an untrained lay evangelist to preach a Pentecostal-type of revivalism (a religious practice focused on restoring the spirit of God into people) to the people of Ontario, Canada.

Physically attractive and possessing a dynamic personality and the instinctive ability to charm crowds, Aimee Semple McPherson gradually perfected her skills. By this time professional revivalism had achieved a distinctive style and organization; McPherson was in the forefront. Though she initially lived an almost

hand-to-mouth existence, following the route of traveling evangelists from Maine to Florida, success meant a move to larger cities in America, England, and Australia. In the cities audiences were often immense, with ten thousand to fifteen thousand people deliriously applauding her. "Speaking in tongues" and successful efforts at faith healing—both practiced by Pentecostal churches—were a part of her ministry. (Pentecostals believe that the sounds made by people while "speaking in tongues" are biblical messages that can be interpreted by another worshipper.)

Her own temple

By 1920 McPherson was permanently established in Los Angeles, California. In 1923 she and her followers dedicated Angelus Temple. She called her new breed of Christian church the Foursquare Gospel, a complete gospel for body, soul, spirit, and eternity. Seating over five thousand people, this served as her center of activity. Backed by a sharp business manager (her mother), McPherson developed a large group of devoted followers. She also became a community figure in tune with the publicity-oriented life of Los Angeles, the film capital of the world.

A popular evangelist, McPherson thrived on publicity and sensationalism (causing an intense and/or unnatural emotional reaction). The most astounding incident occurred in 1926, when McPherson, believed to have drowned in the Pacific Ocean, "miraculously" reappeared in the Mexican desert. Some challenged her tale of kidnapping and mistreatment, claiming she had been in hiding with one of her male followers. The resulting court battle attracted national attention.

McPherson continued her unconventional ways by engaging in a slander suit (when a person is taken to court for telling lies that damaged another's reputation) with her daughter, publicly quarreling with her mother, and carrying on well-publicized vendettas (intense and lengthy fights) with other religious groups. Aimee Semple McPherson died of a sleeping pill overdose in Oakland, California, on September 27, 1944. The Foursquare Gospel church continues to thrive in America today.

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MARGARET MEAD

Born: December 16, 1901
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Died: November 15, 1978
New York, New York
American anthropologist

The American anthropologist (a scientist who studies human beings and their origins, distribution, and relationships) Margaret Mead developed the field of culture and personality research and was a leading influence in introducing the concept of culture into education, medicine, and public policy.

Early life

Margaret Mead was born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on December 16, 1901. She grew up in a free-thinking intellectual home. Her father, Edward Sherwood Mead, was a professor at the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce and the founder of the University of Pennsylvania's evening school. Her mother, Emily Fogg Mead, was a sociologist (a scientist who studies social group behaviors) and an early supporter of women's rights. Margaret's grandmother, Martha Ramsay Mead, a child psychologist (a scientist who studies the mind and its behavior), played an active role in the lives of Margaret, her three sisters and her brother. It was her grandmother who first taught Margaret to watch the behavior of the younger children to figure out the reasons behind their actions.

Mead's childhood school days were unusual in that she only attended one year of half days in the fourth grade and six total years at various high schools. This "formal" education was very much supplemented by all of the educators in her family. Mead loved tradition and ritual, so she joined the Episcopal church at the age of eleven. This faith would be her strength throughout her life. Mead at first wanted to be a painter when she grew up, but such intellectual role models led her to college thinking of English as a field of study.

Mead thrived on change outside of her religious beliefs. In 1919 Mead transferred from DePauw University, in Indiana, to Barnard College, in New York City, where she majored in psychology. Her senior year anthropology course with Franz Boas (1858–1942) was the most powerful event in her life, since it was then that she decided to become an anthropologist. She graduated from Barnard in 1923. In the same year she married Luther Cressman and entered the anthropology department of Columbia University.

Academic life

The Columbia department at this time consisted of Boas, who taught everything, and Ruth Benedict (1887–1948), his only assistant. The catastrophe of World War I (1914–18; a war between the Central powers—led by Germany—and the Allies: England, the United States, Italy, and other nations) and the displacement of people that followed had its impact on the developing study of anthropology. Anthropologists began to ask how their knowledge of the nature of humankind might be used to clarify current problems. At the same time the influence of Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) was beginning to affect all of behavioral (human action) sciences. The atmosphere in the Columbia department was charged with excitement, and whole new perspectives for anthropology were opening up.

Early fieldwork

Mead completed her studies in 1925 and set off for a year of fieldwork in Samoa in the face of opposition from older colleagues (people in the same area of interest) worried

about sending a young woman alone to a Pacific island. She was going to study the life of adolescent girls. She learned the native language (one of seven she eventually mastered) and lived in a Samoan household as “one of the girls.” She found that young Samoan girls experienced none of the tensions American and European teenagers suffered from, and she showed the kind of social arrangements that make this easy transition to adulthood possible.

On returning from the field Mead became assistant curator (one in charge of the museum) of ethnology (the science of classifying mankind into races) at the American Museum of Natural History, where she remained, eventually becoming curator and, in 1969, curator emeritus (honorary title). Her goal in going to the museum was “to make Americans understand cultural anthropology as well as they understood archaeology [study of material remains, fossils, rocks, of past human life and activity].”

In 1928, Mead left for New Guinea, this time with Reo Fortune, an anthropologist from New Zealand whom she had married that year. Her project was the study of the thought of young children, testing some of the then current theories. Her study of children’s thought in its sociocultural (having both social and cultural elements) context is described in *Growing Up in New Guinea* (1930). She later returned to the village of Peri, where this study was made, after twenty-five years, when the children she had known in 1929 were leaders of a community going through the difficulties of change to modern life. She described this change, with flashbacks to the earlier days, in *New Lives for Old* (1956).



Margaret Mead.

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New field methods

Mead’s interest in psychiatry had turned her attention to the problem of the cultural context of schizophrenia (a mental disorder whose symptoms are a detachment to one’s environment and a breakdown of one’s personality—thoughts, feelings, and actions). With this in mind she went to Bali, a society where going into a trance (the state of complete unconscious) and other forms of dissociation (an escape from the outer world into an inner one) are culturally approved and encouraged. She was now married to Gregory Bateson, a British anthropologist whom she had met in New Guinea. The Balinese study

was especially noteworthy for development of new field techniques. The extensive use of film made it possible to record and analyze significant details of behavior that had escaped the pencil-and-paper recordings. Of the thirty-eight thousand photographs which Mead and Bateson brought back, seven hundred fifty-nine were selected for *Balinese Character* (1942), a joint study with Bateson. This publication marks a major change in the recording and presentation of ethnological data and may prove in the long run to be one of her most significant contributions to the science of anthropology.

Largely through the work of Ruth Benedict and Mead, the relevance of anthropology to problems of public policy was recognized though somewhat belatedly. When World War II (1939–45; a war between the Axis powers: Japan, Italy, and Germany—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States) brought the United States into contact with peoples just coming from colonialism (a control of a group of people or area by a foreign government), the need to understand many lifestyles became obvious. Mead conducted a nationwide study of American food habits prior to the introduction of rationing (process in war time of conserving goods for soldiers by portioning them out sparingly to citizens). Later she was sent to England to try to explain to the British the habits of the American soldiers who were suddenly among them.

Rooted in psychology

Mead drew heavily on psychology, especially learning theory and psychoanalysis (type of treatment for emotional disorders in which a patient talks through childhood

experiences and looks at the significance of dreams). In return she contributed significantly to the development of psychoanalytic theory by emphasizing the importance of culture in personality development. She served on many national and international committees for mental health and was instrumental in introducing the study of culture into training programs for physicians and social workers.

Mead was a dominant force in developing the field of culture and personality and the related field of national character research. Her theoretical position is based on the assumption that an individual matures within a cultural context which includes an ideological system (ideas), the expectations of others, and techniques of socialization (methods of fitting in with one's social environment) which affect not only outward responses but also the inner mental structure.

Mead was criticized by certain other social scientists for neglecting quantitative (measuring) methods and for what has been called "anecdotal" (relying on short stories of interesting incidents for proof) handling of data. She was also accused of applying concepts of individual psychology to the analysis of social process while ignoring historical and economic factors. But since her concern lay with predicting the behavior of individuals within a given social setting and not with the development of institutions, the criticism does not hold much weight.

There is no question that Mead was one of the leading American intellectuals of the twentieth century. Through her best-selling books, her public lectures, and her well-read column in *Redbook* magazine, Mead popularized anthropology in the United States. She

was also a role model for American women, encouraging them to pursue professional careers previously closed to women while at the same time championing their roles as mothers.

Margaret Mead died on November 15, 1978, in New York City and was later awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom.

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CATHERINE DE' MEDICI

Born: April 13, 1519

Florence, Italy

Died: January 5, 1589

Blois, France

Italian-born politician

Catherine de' Medici was married to the French King Henry II (1519–1559) and was mother and regent

(one who governs a kingdom in the absence of the real ruler) of three other kings—Francis II (1544–1560), Charles IX (1550–1574), and Henry III (1551–1589). She had great influence over her sons and is thought by some to have authorized the famous Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day in 1572.

Early life

Catherine was born in 1519 to a powerful Italian prince from the Medici family. Her mother died a few days after giving birth, and her father died a week later. Her father's relatives, among them popes Leo X (1475–1521) and Clement VII (1478–1534), took over her care. At the time of her birth, the Reformation was beginning with Martin Luther's (1483–1546) criticism of the Roman Catholic Church. It soon spread throughout Europe. Protestants, as they came to be called, sought a truer form of their faith than that offered by the political and often corrupt (engaging in unlawful activity) Catholic Church. French Protestants were known as Huguenots, and the rapid growth of their numbers soon made them a powerful force in French affairs.

In 1533 Pope Clement arranged the marriage of fourteen-year-old Catherine to fourteen-year-old Henry, the duke of Orleans and younger son of King Francis I (1494–1547) of France. Catherine eventually gave birth to ten children, beginning in 1543. The death of her husband's older brother in 1536 made Henry and Catherine next in line for the throne. Catherine's husband, now Henry II, had been cared for at age eleven by Diane de Poitiers, who was twenty years his senior. Despite this age difference, they became lovers, and throughout most of Henry's reign as king of France, which began in 1547,



Catherine de' Medici.

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Diane had more influence over him than Catherine did. Diane was even given responsibility for raising Catherine's children.

Teenage kings

The Catholic leaders of France and Spain made peace in 1559 partly because they needed money but also so they could unite against Protestantism. The treaty was sealed by the marriage of Philip II (1527–1598) of Spain to Elisabeth, the teenage daughter of Catherine and King Henry. At the joust (a fight on horseback) held during the wedding celebrations, however, King Henry was injured by a lance that pierced his eye and

entered his brain. Henry's death a few days later brought his and Catherine's oldest son, sixteen-year-old Francis II, to the throne.

Sensing an opportunity, Huguenot leaders quickly organized a plot to take over the court of Francis II. Their plan failed, and the royal army arrested the leaders, executing fifty-seven of them. This did not end the conflicts in France; from this time forward, the Huguenot Navarre family and the Catholic Guise family began a long struggle. The death of Francis II the following year made Catherine regent for her second son Charles, who became King Charles IX at the age of ten. Through much of the 1560s, the two religious groups were at war while Catherine and Charles tried to avoid siding completely with either camp. Catherine tried to keep the country running smoothly in the face of this constant tension. The feud between the Navarre and Guise families became worse when the Huguenot leader Admiral Gaspard de Coligny (1519–1572) ordered the assassination of the duke of Guise in 1563.

The Peace of St. Germain

The signing of the Peace of St. Germain in 1570 brought a temporary end to a decade of war. Among the treaty's provisions were the decisions that Catherine's daughter Marguerite would marry Henry of Navarre (1553–1610), the Huguenot leader, that the Huguenots would be given several territories throughout France, and that Coligny would return to his position in the royal court. Catherine hoped he might act to calm his fellow Huguenots while she played the same role among Catholics. But Coligny quickly moved to become a friend and adviser of King Charles IX, leading many to believe he was planning another takeover.

Catherine decided to dispose of Gaspard de Coligny once and for all. She accepted an offer from the Guise party to have him assassinated, hoping that it would lead to revived power for her own party. The assassin shot Coligny but failed to kill him. After talking to Catherine and his younger brother Henry, Charles finally accepted their claim that Coligny was using him, that Coligny planned to overthrow the whole Catholic court, and he and the other Huguenot leaders should now be finished off. According to his brother Henry's diary, Charles at last shouted, "Kill the Admiral if you wish; but you must also kill all the Huguenots, so that not one is left alive to reproach (oppose) me. Kill them all!"

Massacre and more conflict

At two in the morning on August 24, Saint Bartholomew's Day, 1572, Catholic troops moved to kill the injured Coligny and other Huguenot leaders. Eventually all sense of order broke down; looting and fighting broke out across Paris, and over two thousand men, women, and children wound up dead. Catherine was reported to have ordered the attacks, but this has never been completely proved. Another civil war began, but by a strange turn of events, leadership of the Huguenot party now fell to Catherine's youngest son Francis, duke of Alençon. Placing himself at the head of the Protestant forces and dreaming of a crown, he declared that his older brother Henry, who had just been elected to the throne of Poland, was no longer available to rule France.

The departure of Catherine's third son, Henry, to take over the throne of Poland prompted another Huguenot uprising. With her usual energy, Catherine organized forces

to stop it, and with her usual decisiveness, she witnessed the executions of its leaders. She also witnessed the death of her son King Charles, aged twenty-four. She recalled her favorite, Henry, to take over as king. Henry III was crowned in 1575 and married, but he had no children who might eventually assume the throne. He also had disagreements with the Guise family, which complicated things. Catherine urged Henry to settle his differences with the Guise family for the sake of national and Catholic security.

Catherine remained politically active until the end of her life, touring France on Henry's behalf and trying to maintain the loyalty of its many war-torn territories. She also built up a huge collection of books and paintings, and she built or enlarged some of Paris's finest buildings. In 1589 she became ill while dancing at the marriage of one of her granddaughters. She died on January 5, living just long enough to hear that Henry's bodyguards had murdered Guise, which she saw as a rejection by her son of all that she had worked for. Later that year, Henry III was assassinated. In another twist, it was the Huguenot prince Henry of Navarre who took over the throne; he was unable to sit upon it until he adopted the Catholic faith in 1593 with the famous remark, "Paris is worth a Mass."

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GOLDA MEIR

Born: May 3, 1898

Kiev, Ukraine

Died: December 8, 1978

Jerusalem, Israel

Israeli prime minister, Zionist leader, and political leader

Golda Meir served as Israel's foreign minister from 1956 to 1966 and became its fourth prime minister in 1969. By the end of her life, she had become a hero as one of the first women to head a nation in the modern era. Meir was a leading figure in the movement called Zionism, the movement to create a Jewish state in Palestine, the area the Jews regarded as their historical home. The Zionist movement helped lead to the founding of Israel.

Childhood and early interests

Golda Meir was born the daughter of Moshe and Bluma Mabovitch in Kiev, Ukraine, on May 3, 1898. She moved with her family to Milwaukee, Wisconsin, in 1906. The Mabovitch family had fled their home in part to escape pogroms (mob attacks) that had been carried out against Jews in Russia at the time. Meir later recalled that her childhood terror of anti-Semitic (anti-Jewish) violence strongly influenced

her later commitment to establish Israel as a safe, secure Jewish state.

After attending high school, Meir went to the Teachers' Training College in Milwaukee in 1917. She had attained her school-teacher's training over the objections of her parents, who had felt that girls should be married, not pursue a profession. Meir did both, marrying Morris Myerson in 1917 (later she modified her name to Meir). In 1921 they left for Palestine. This Middle Eastern region, which included the territory of modern-day Israel and the West Bank, was at that time under the administration of Great Britain and largely populated by Arabs.

After arriving in Palestine, the Myersons joined a kibbutz (a communal settlement) where after some training they were put in charge of the chicken farm. However, Golda's husband became ill, and the couple decided to move to Tel Aviv. The couple eventually moved to Jerusalem where their two children were born. In Jerusalem, Golda found work as treasurer of the Office of Public Works of the Histadruth, a labor organization that included kibbutz workers and that became the most important economic organization in the Israeli state.

Birth of Israel

From 1928 Golda Meir was the secretary of the Working Women's Council in Palestine and served as its representative on the leadership of the Histadruth. She also represented the council at a number of international labor meetings and was a delegate to its sister organization, the Pioneer Women, in the United States. After 1929 she was elected a delegate to most meetings of the World Zionist Organization. This was the real beginning

of her Zionist political activity. In 1940 she was appointed head of the political department of the Histadruth. As such, she fought against the British White Paper of 1939, which limited Jewish immigration to Palestine. Meir organized illegal Jewish immigration to Palestine at this time, when Jews faced danger in Europe because of World War II (1939–45) and persecution by the German Nazi regime.

When the Palestine Administration (the main British governing body) imprisoned the leaders of the Jewish Agency, a Zionist organization, in June 1946, Meir was appointed acting head of the Jewish Agency's political department. Originally picked to replace the arrested Moshe Shertok-Sharett (1894–1965) in this position, she continued in this role until the proclamation of the independence of Israel on May 14, 1948. Early in 1948 she visited the United States to organize an emergency fund campaign for Palestine, with very successful results. On May 14 she was, as a member of Israel's Provisional Council of State, among the signers of its Declaration of Independence.

Israeli leader

Meir started her political career in Israel as its representative to the Soviet Union. With her election to the first Israeli Parliament (governing body), she returned to Israel and was appointed minister of labor and social insurance. While in this office, she worked to solve the most important internal problems of Israel: housing and employment for the new mass Jewish immigration. Still known by her married name, she engineered what became known as the "Myerson Plan," which allowed for the construction of more



Golda Meir.

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than thirty thousand units of one-room housing. She also oversaw the construction of some two hundred thousand low-income apartments to house Israel's newly immigrated families.

In 1956, Israeli prime minister David Ben-Gurion (1886–1976) called Meir "the best man" in his cabinet and named her to replace Shertok-Sharett as foreign minister, among the most important government jobs in the nation. It was now, as a result of Ben-Gurion's desire to have all Israelis bear Hebrew names, that she reluctantly altered her name to Meir, while keeping it as close as possible to Myerson.

In 1966, tired and ill, Meir resigned as minister of foreign affairs. However, soon after, under pressure from her political party, she agreed to take over the leadership of Israel's Labor Party. Over the next two years, she succeeded in reuniting three main labor groups that had split, the Mapai, the Achdut Ha'Avodah, and the Rafi, into one political party. The merger took place on January 2, 1968, and in August she retired from political activity. However, after the death of Prime Minister Levi Eshkol (1895–1969), when it looked as if conflict might arise within the Labor Party in the effort to find his replacement, Meir again came out of retirement to assume the post of Israel's prime minister on March 17, 1969.

Prime minister

Though elderly and in poor health, Meir proved her abilities to the country during her initial nine-month term. As a result, her Labor Party won the 1969 elections. Meir thus gained her own four-year term as prime minister. This period was marked by Meir's efforts to gain U.S. aid in the form of military and economic assistance. The assurances she won from U.S. president Richard Nixon (1913–1994) helped her open peace talks with the United Arab Republic in 1967, during which one of the several conflicts between Israel and its Arab neighbors (known as the Arab-Israeli Wars) had occurred.

Meir sided with radicals in her government who felt that the territories captured during the 1967 war should be settled by Israelis, yet she also retained the support of moderates who favored giving up land claims in exchange for peace. However, in 1973 and 1974, Israel's unpreparedness for another of the Arab-Israeli Wars, known as the Yom

Kippur War, brought demands for new leadership. After the 1973 elections, Meir was still able to form a new government, but divisions only increased and on April 10, 1974, she resigned as prime minister.

Even in retirement, Meir remained an important political presence in Israel. Her autobiography, *My Life*, helped assure her place in the public's imagination as the kindly grandmother who had risen to greatness in her nation's hour of need. Meir died in Jerusalem on December 8, 1978.

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RIGOBERTA MENCHÚ

Born: January 9, 1959

Chimel, Guatemala

Guatemalan human rights activist

Rigoberta Menchú has been a passionate spokesperson for the rights of indigenous peoples—people who belong to an ethnic group that is native to a

region, such as the Mayan peoples of Central America. She won a Nobel Peace Prize in 1992 for her work on behalf of the indigenous groups of Guatemala, her native country. However, her work has made her a leading voice for the rights of indigenous peoples throughout the Western Hemisphere.

A hard childhood

Rigoberta Menchú was born on January 9, 1959, in Chimel, a village in the Quiché province (political unit or region) in the mountainous northwest region of Guatemala. Her mother was a midwife (a person who assists women in giving birth) and traditional healer. Her father, Vicente, was a day laborer (someone who is hired and paid to work on a daily basis) and community leader. Both her parents belonged to one of the many indigenous groups of Guatemala, the Quiché Maya. They spoke little Spanish, the language of those in power of Guatemala since its conquest by Spain in the sixteenth century. Instead, they spoke Quiché. Young Menchú herself spoke only Quiché until she was nineteen.

Menchú's difficult childhood is an example of how hundreds of thousands of Indian (indigenous) children grow up in Guatemala. Every year she followed her parents to the southern coastal plantations (large farms), where they spent months as laborers picking cotton and coffee. Two of her brothers died on the plantations, one after being poisoned by insecticides (chemicals used by farmers to kill insects) and the other because of malnutrition (poor diet). Menchú started working on the plantations when she was only eight, and at age thirteen she experienced her first close contact with people of Spanish culture



Rigoberta Menchú.

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when she worked as a maid for a wealthy family in Guatemala City. At this time, Menchú also experienced discrimination against Indians practiced by Latinos (people of Spanish culture). Her employers made her sleep on the floor on a mat next to the family dog—which, she later recalled, was treated better than her.

Guatemala's troubles

Menchú's political beliefs were shaped by Guatemala's troubled history. In 1954, a left-wing civilian president was removed from power by a coup d'état (the overthrow of a government by a small group of people

who have held positions of power) that was supported by the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. After this coup, the country was ruled by military officers. They ruled the country harshly, tolerating little protest or disagreement. When a guerrilla movement (a movement in which small groups use surprise tactics and attacks to harass or overthrow those in power) opposed to the military rulers began in 1962, the government responded violently. They arrested and killed not only the guerrillas, but also those who supported them or were believed to support them, especially in the countryside.

Political violence began again in the 1970s, when government pressure was applied so widely and harshly that U.S. president Jimmy Carter (1924–) halted economic aid to Guatemala after repeated warnings to the government to stop human rights (basic rights and freedoms to which all people are entitled) violations. Guatemala's Indians, who made up 60 percent of the population, were forced to move into "model villages" and to serve in the military. In this environment, movements to benefit the conditions of Indians were viewed as part of a communist plot by the government.

Political activities

Menchú became politically active, inspired in part by her religious beliefs. Like many others in Central America, she was influenced by Liberation Theology, a movement that believes the Bible should be read through the eyes of the poor and that Jesus Christ had a special message of freedom for poor people.

Another important influence was Menchú's father, Vicente, who was active in

the Peasant Unity Committee, a group that fought to obtain land for peasants and to protect the land they held from being seized by wealthy landowners. Rigoberta Menchú joined the committee in 1979, and was asked to organize the country's twenty-two Indian groups against exploitation (being treated unfairly by those in power). Later that year her teenage brother was tortured and then killed by the army. The following year she lost her father when Vicente Menchú, along with other representatives of indigenous groups, occupied the Spanish embassy in Guatemala City as part of a protest activity. The army attacked the embassy and burned it, killing thirty-nine people, including Menchú's father.

International campaign for rights

The next year Menchú's mother was kidnapped, tortured, and killed by the Guatemalan army, and two of her sisters joined the guerrillas. Life in Guatemala had become too dangerous, and Menchú fled to Mexico in 1981. There she began an international crusade to represent the hardships of the Guatemalan Indians and joined the United Nations Working Group on Indigenous Populations.

In 1983, while Menchú was in Paris to promote her cause, she dictated (spoke out loud to be copied down) her life story to Elizabeth Burgos. The result was the widely read book *I, Rigoberta Menchú: An Indian Woman in Guatemala*, which was translated into more than a dozen languages. It brought her worldwide attention and helped her to become the foremost spokesperson for indigenous peoples.

Peace in Guatemala

In 1988, Menchú's first attempt to return to Guatemala ended badly when she was threatened and put in jail. However, she later visited her country again for short periods of time. It was during one such visit in October of 1992 that she learned she would be given the Nobel Peace Prize for her work on behalf of the rights of indigenous peoples. She was only thirty-three.

In June 1993, during a political crisis in Guatemala, Menchú played a key role in the events that brought to power a new president, Ramiro de León Carpio, a human rights advocate. International pressure also helped force the government to ease up on military violence and violation of people's rights, and in 1995 many refugees who had fled from Guatemala to Mexico began to return.

The following year, the Guatemalan government and rebel leaders signed a cease-fire agreement to end their forty-two-year conflict, Latin America's longest civil war. It was a war that Menchú and her family had fought hard to end.

World figure

Menchú's actions and statements have been considered controversial. Conservatives have accused her of being associated with communist groups, and the story of her life in *I, Rigoberta Menchú: An Indian Woman in Guatemala* was questioned by journalist David Stoll in 1998. In his own book, *Rigoberta Menchú and the Story of All Poor Guatemalans*, Stoll argued that Menchú had distorted key facts in her autobiography.

Nevertheless, Menchú remains an active voice for those who lack representation. In

2000 she filed charges in a Spanish court against several officials in Guatemala's former military governments, accusing them of genocide (mass murder), torture, and state terrorism against some two hundred thousand people who had been killed in her country during the 1980s. Menchú has also been a vocal opponent of the effects of globalization, or the increasing dominance of multinational corporations in the world's economy. In early 2002 she was among the most celebrated speakers at the World Social Forum, a gathering of antiglobalization protesters in Brazil that was timed to coincide with the World Economic Forum, a meeting of politicians and corporate officers that was held at the same time in New York, New York.

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**FELIX
MENDELSSOHN**

Born: February 3, 1809
Hamburg, Germany

Died: November 4, 1847

Leipzig, Germany

German composer

Felix Mendelssohn was a German composer (a writer of music), conductor (the leader of a musical group), pianist, and organist. He developed a basic classical approach to musical composition with fresh romantic harmonies and expressiveness.

Childhood

Felix Jakob Ludwig Mendelssohn-Bartholdy was born in Hamburg, Germany, on February 3, 1809, the son of Abraham and Leah Mendelssohn and the grandson of the famous Jewish philosopher Moses Mendelssohn (1729–1786). In later years Felix's father humorously referred to himself as "formerly the son of my father and now the father of my son." In 1812 the family moved to Berlin, Germany, where Abraham established himself as a banker, converted to Protestantism (a branch of Christian religion), and changed the family name to Mendelssohn-Bartholdy.

Felix and his elder sister, Fanny, received their early piano instruction from their mother. In 1816, on a visit to Paris, France, he studied with the pianist Marie Bigot. The next year he began formal studies in composition with Carl Friedrich Zelter, a composer greatly admired by the poet Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749–1832). Also as a child, Mendelssohn took a keen interest in drawing and painting and took lessons in foreign languages.

Mendelssohn's first public appearance occurred at the age of nine. Famous musi-

cians gave concerts every Sunday at his father's house; in addition to broadening the musical horizons of the gifted boy, they enabled him, as a budding composer, to test many of his works as he wrote them. In 1819 he entered the Singakademie, a music academy, and from that time on compositions flowed steadily from his pen. In 1820, for example, he produced two piano sonatas (pieces for one instrument), a violin sonata, songs, a quartet for men's voices, a cantata, and a short opera.

First appearances

The first public presentation of Mendelssohn's works took place in 1822. That year he also wrote his official op. 1, a Piano Quartet in C Minor. All these works were well received. He had a private orchestra, for which he wrote the work now known as Symphony no. 1 in C Minor. He also continued with other work, such as the Piano Quartet in F Minor (1823).

In 1824 the famous pianist Ignaz Moscheles (1794–1870) arrived in Berlin from London, England, and for a time Mendelssohn studied piano with him. The following year Mendelssohn visited Paris, where he met many famous composers and performed his Piano Quartet in B Minor, dedicated to Goethe. Back in France he wrote with mature craftsmanship the celebrated *Midsummer Night's Dream Overture*.

In 1827 Mendelssohn's only opera, *Die Hochzeit des Camacho* (*The Marriage of Camacho*), based on *Don Quixote* by Cervantes (1547–1616), was presented in Berlin. More successful was the Octet for Strings, one of Mendelssohn's freshest and most original works. The same year he became acquainted

with Anton Thibaut, a professor of law and a gifted amateur writer of music who was concerned with revitalizing interest in old church music. Through him, Mendelssohn came to know the masterpieces of the Renaissance (a period of great artistic awakening during the fourteenth to sixteenth centuries) and early baroque choral music, an elaborate style of music popular in the eighteenth century. In 1828 appeared the Goethe-inspired overture *Calm Sea and Prosperous Voyage*.

Gaining popularity

On March 11, 1829, a great musical event occurred: Mendelssohn conducted the Singakademie in the first complete performance of Johann Sebastian Bach's (1685–1750) *St. Matthew Passion* since the composer's death. The work was a huge success, and the performance was of great importance to all later German composers for it marked the beginning of the revival of Bach's works. Later that year Mendelssohn visited England, where he conducted a concert of the Philharmonic Society. He took a long trip through Scotland, where he sketched the now famous Hebrides, or Fingal's Cave, Overture. On his return to Berlin he was offered the post of professor of music at the university but turned it down.

After writing the Reformation Symphony (1830) Mendelssohn began a series of visits to various European cities that lasted for almost three years. After a short stay with Goethe at Weimar, Mendelssohn went to Rome, Italy, where he began both the Scottish and the Italian symphonies. In the autumn he returned to Germany and played his newly composed Piano Concerto in G Minor in Munich, Germany. In 1832 he left for Lon-



*Felix Mendelssohn.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

don, where he conducted the Hebrides Overture and the Piano Concerto in G Minor with great praise. That same year his first book of *Songs without Words* (*Lieder ohne Worte*) was published.

In 1835 Mendelssohn became director of the Gewandhaus concerts in Leipzig, Germany. He made Leipzig into a musical center of European significance because of his gifts as conductor, his creativity, and his all-encompassing (including all) musical education. He featured many contemporary (modern) compositions, such works as the C Major Symphony of Franz Schubert (1797–1828), newly discovered by Robert Schu-

mann (1810–1856), and selected compositions of J. S. Bach. The only sadness he experienced was the death of his father in 1835. A year later he met Cécile Jeanrenaud, whom he married in 1837. Five children were born of this marriage.

Later years

Upon the urging of the king of Prussia, Mendelssohn was appointed music director of the Academy of Arts in Berlin. Until 1845 he worked only occasionally in Berlin without giving up his post at Leipzig. His schedule was marked with several trips to London, with performances of his works in London and Birmingham, England.

In 1843 Mendelssohn founded the Leipzig Conservatory of Music, the first of its kind in Germany. He completed the Scottish Symphony, the Violin Concerto, and other major works of his maturity in Leipzig. In 1844 he conducted five Philharmonic concerts in London, and in 1846 he gave the first performance of his *Elijah*, written for the Birmingham Festival of that year. His chief occupation was still as conductor of the Gewandhaus concerts, but he also functioned as director of the Leipzig Conservatory, teaching piano and composition as part of his duties.

Mendelssohn's health began to fail in 1844. Three years later he was literally devastated by the death of his beloved sister, Fanny, on May 14. From then on his health fell apart drastically, and although he went on a short summer trip to Switzerland for his health, finishing the String Quartet in F Minor, he returned exhausted to Leipzig, where he died on November 4, 1847, at the age of thirty-eight.

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KWEISI MFUME

Born: October 24, 1948

Baltimore, Maryland

African American civil rights activist, city councilman, congressman, and professor

Kweisi Mfume has been an active leader in the civil rights struggle for many decades. As a congressman, Mfume became one of the most well-known African American politicians in Washington, D.C. Believing that he could achieve more for civil rights by working for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), Mfume eventually left Congress to become president of the organization.

“Things spun out of control”

Kweisi Mfume was born Frizzell Gray on October 24, 1948, in Baltimore, Mary-

land. His stepfather, Clifton Gray, was a truck driver, and his mother, Mary Elizabeth Gray, took odd jobs, but the family was often short of cash. Mfume was a good student who was protective of his three younger sisters. When Mfume was eleven, Clifton Gray abandoned the family. Then, when Mfume was sixteen, his mother discovered that she had cancer and soon died. He told *U.S. News and World Report*, "After she died of cancer, things spun out of control." Mfume quit high school during his second year and went to work to help support his sisters. At times he worked as many as three different jobs in a single week.

Mfume also began hanging out on street corners drinking with friends. As he recalled in *U.S. News and World Report*, "I was locked up a couple of times on suspicion of theft because I happened to be black and happened to be young. And before I knew it, I was a teenage parent, not once but twice, three times, four times, five times." Mfume's life changed on a July night in the late 1960s. He had been drinking with his friends when suddenly he began to feel strange. "People were standing around shooting craps [playing dice] and everything else, and something just came over me," he remembered in *Business Week*. "I said, 'I can't live like this anymore.' And I walked away." Mfume spent the rest of the night in prayer, then proceeded to earn his high-school diploma and pursue a college degree.

A new name

In an effort to connect with his African background, Mfume adopted a new name early in the 1970s. His aunt had traveled to Ghana and suggested the name when she



Kweisi Mfume.

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returned. "Kweisi Mfume" is a phrase that translates as "conquering son of kings." Mfume went to work at a radio station in Baltimore. He began as an unpaid volunteer and eventually became an announcer. He also earned a bachelor's degree with honors from Morgan State University in 1976. When that college opened a radio station, Mfume was hired as program director. Mfume became one of the strongest voices in Baltimore's black community. His growing popularity convinced him to try his hand at politics.

In 1978 Mfume ran for a seat in the Baltimore City Council. After an advisor recom-

mended that he start wearing suits and ties, he won the election by only three votes. Mfume became a constant critic of then-Baltimore mayor William Donald Schaefer (1921–), accusing Schaefer of ignoring poor neighborhoods. The two men almost came to blows on several occasions. Gradually Mfume became aware that politics was a game of compromise and building coalitions (temporary alliances). He learned the art of negotiation (give and take to settle an issue) and even developed a friendly relationship with Schaefer. Mfume told *Business Week* of his former enemy, “We could go to our graves battling each other, or we could get things done.”

A congressman with clout

In 1986 Mfume became a candidate for Congress from the Seventh District. His opponents attacked him by reminding voters that Mfume had dropped out of high school and fathered many children without marrying the mothers. Still, he won the election and took his seat in Congress in 1987. When he found himself on the House Committee on Banking, Finance, and Urban Affairs, he taught himself about banking issues and economics. When the map of his district was changed to include more rural regions of Maryland, he studied farming and zoning laws to be able to represent his new constituents (members of his district). Mfume told the *Washington Post*, “I wanted people to get used to me real quick because I didn’t plan on leaving.”

Mfume established himself as a liberal who supported an increase in federal aid to inner cities. He returned to Baltimore nearly every week to deal firsthand with his constituents, many of whom lived in the city. “I

keep coming back to these communities and the lessons I learned here because that’s what got me where I am,” he told the *Washington Post*. “When I can’t get anything moving in Washington I can always come back here. . . . Whatever I’m doing in Washington, if it doesn’t matter here, it doesn’t matter.”

By his fourth term, Mfume had enough influence to become chairman of the Congressional Black Caucus, a group in Congress that supports the interests of African Americans. Soon after his election as chairman, Mfume and the Caucus presented a list of demands to President Bill Clinton (1946–), most of them having to do with federal aid to cities and the poor. “Not too many brothers or sisters would say ‘no’ to the president,” NAACP executive director Benjamin Chavis (1948–) was quoted as saying in *Emerge*. Mfume told *Business Week*, “We are going to be taken seriously. . . . If that means killing an important piece of [leadership-backed] legislation, then that will be the case.”

A better opportunity

On February 20, 1996, Mfume left his seat in Congress to become the president of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). He said that he could do more for civil rights as NAACP president than in Congress. After one year of leadership, Mfume had erased the NAACP’s \$4.5 million debt. However, many questioned whether he would be able to restore the association to its former place of leadership in the civil rights movement. He also faced the task of trying to change the image of the association in an effort to increase appeal among younger African Americans.

After one year on the job, Mfume said that his term as president had “gone by in the blink of an eye because the workload was so high and the challenges were so great and the possibilities were so unlimited. I’m a workaholic by nature, so the fact that all this kind of coincided together was good for me in the sense that it challenged me.” With the group’s financial problems behind him, Mfume told members that the NAACP still had a long way to go. Among the issues he intended to address were affordable health care, conservation, voting reform, and hate crimes. In January 2000, NBC Television struck a deal with the NAACP to find more minorities to write, produce, and direct television shows after NAACP complaints about the “virtual whitewash” in new programming. Mfume predicted similar agreements would follow with the ABC, CBS, and Fox networks.

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MICHELANGELO

Born: March 6, 1475

Caprese, Italy

Died: February 18, 1564

Rome, Italy

Italian artist

Michelangelo was one of the greatest sculptors of the Italian Renaissance and one of its greatest painters and architects.

Early life

Michelangelo Buonarroti was born on March 6, 1475, in Caprese, Italy, a village where his father, Lodovico Buonarroti, was briefly serving as a Florentine government agent. The family moved back to Florence before Michelangelo was one month old. Michelangelo’s mother died when he was six. From his childhood Michelangelo was drawn to the arts, but his father considered this pursuit below the family’s social status and tried to discourage him. However, Michelangelo prevailed and was apprenticed (worked to learn a trade) at the age of thirteen to Domenico Ghirlandaio (1449–1494), the most fashionable painter in Florence at the time.

After a year Michelangelo’s apprenticeship was broken off. The boy was given access to the collection of ancient Roman sculpture of the ruler of Florence, Lorenzo de’ Medici (1449–1492). He dined with the family and was looked after by the retired sculptor who was in charge of the collection. This arrangement was quite unusual at the time.

Early works

Michelangelo’s earliest sculpture, the *Battle of the Centaurs* (mythological creatures that are part man and part horse), a stone work created when he was about seventeen, is regarded as remarkable for the simple, solid forms and squarish proportions of the figures, which add intensity to their violent interaction.

Soon after Lorenzo died in 1492, the Medici family fell from power and Michelangelo fled to Bologna. In 1494 he carved three saints for the church of San Domenico. They show dense forms, in contrast to the linear forms which were then dominant in sculpture.

Rome

After returning to Florence briefly, Michelangelo moved to Rome. There he carved a Bacchus for a banker's garden of ancient sculpture. This is Michelangelo's earliest surviving large-scale work, and his only sculpture meant to be viewed from all sides.

In 1498 the same banker commissioned Michelangelo to carve the *Pietà* now in St. Peter's. The term *pietà* refers to a type of image in which Mary supports the dead Christ across her knees. Larger than life size, the *Pietà* contains elements which contrast and reinforce each other: vertical and horizontal, cloth and skin, alive and dead, female and male.

Florence

On Michelangelo's return to Florence in 1501 he was recognized as the most talented sculptor of central Italy. He was commissioned to carve the *David* for the Florence Cathedral.

Michelangelo's *Battle of Cascina* was commissioned in 1504; several sketches still exist. The central scene shows a group of muscular soldiers climbing from a river where they had been swimming to answer a military alarm. This fusion of life with colossal grandeur henceforth was the special quality of Michelangelo's art.

From this time on, Michelangelo's work consisted mainly of very large projects that he never finished. He was unable to turn down the vast commissions of his great clients which appealed to his preference for the grand scale.

Pope Julius II (1443–1513) called Michelangelo to Rome in 1505 to design his tomb, which was to include about forty life-size statues. Michelangelo worked on the project off and on for the next forty years.

Sistine Chapel

In 1508 Pope Julius II commissioned Michelangelo to decorate the ceiling of the chief Vatican chapel, the Sistine. The traditional format of ceiling painting contained only single figures. Michelangelo introduced dramatic scenes and an original framing system, which was his earliest architectural design. The chief elements are twelve male and female prophets (the latter known as sibyls) and nine stories from Genesis.

Michelangelo stopped for some months halfway along. When he returned to the ceiling, his style underwent a shift toward a more forceful grandeur and a richer emotional tension than in any previous work. The images of the *Separation of Light and Darkness*, and *Ezekiel* illustrate this greater freedom and mobility.

After the ceiling was completed in 1512, Michelangelo returned to the tomb of Julius and carved a *Moses* and two *Slaves*. His models were the same physical types he used for the prophets and their attendants in the Sistine ceiling. Julius's death in 1513 halted the work on his tomb.

Pope Leo X, son of Lorenzo de' Medici, proposed a marble facade for the family

parish church of San Lorenzo in Florence to be decorated with statues by Michelangelo. After four years of quarrying and designing the project was canceled.

Medici Chapel

In 1520 Michelangelo was commissioned to execute the Medici Chapel for two young Medici dukes. It contains two tombs, each with an image of the deceased and two allegorical (symbolic) figures: *Day* and *Night* on one tomb, and *Morning* and *Evening* on the other.

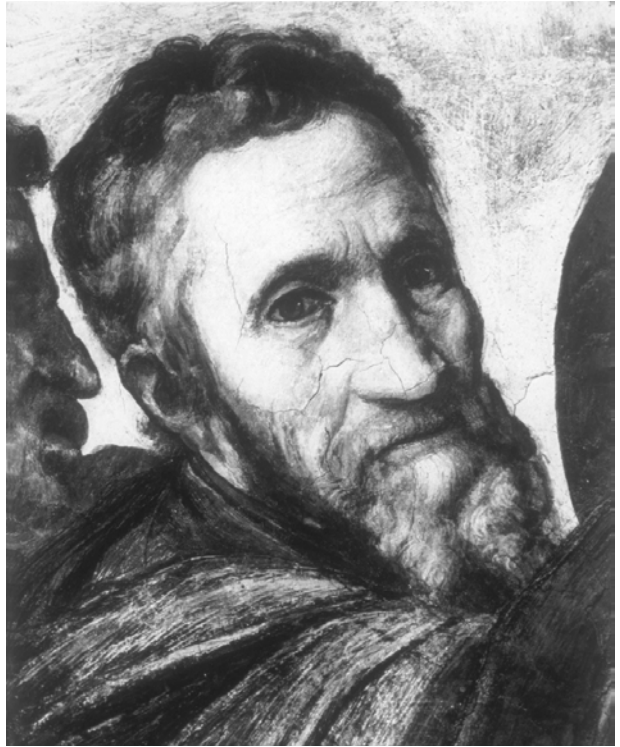
A library, the Biblioteca Laurenziana, was built at the same time on the opposite side of San Lorenzo to house Pope Leo X's books. The entrance hall and staircase are some of Michelangelo's most astonishing architecture, with recessed columns resting on scroll brackets set halfway up the wall and corners stretched open rather than sealed.

Poetry

Michelangelo wrote many poems in the 1530s and 1540s. Approximately three hundred survive. The earlier poems are on the theme of Neoplatonic love (belief that the soul comes from a single undivided source to which it can unite again) and are full of logical contradictions and intricate images. The later poems are Christian. Their mood is penitent (being sorrow and regretful); and they are written in a simple, direct style.

Last Judgment

In 1534 Michelangelo left Florence for the last time, settling in Rome. The next ten years were mainly given over to painting for Pope Paul III (1468–1549). In 1536 Michelangelo



Michelangelo.

began the *Last Judgment*, for Pope Paul III, on the end wall of the Sistine Chapel. The design shows some angels pushing the damned down to hell on one side and some pulling up the saved on the other side. Both groups are directed by Christ. The flow of movement in the *Last Judgment* is slower than in Michelangelo's earlier work. During this time, Michelangelo also painted frescoes in the Pauline Chapel in the Vatican (1541–1545).

Works after 1545

Michelangelo devoted himself almost entirely to architecture and poetry after

1545, including rebuilding of the Capitol area, the Piazza del Campidoglio, for Pope Paul III. The pope also appointed Michelangelo to direct the work at St. Peter's in 1546. The enormous church was planned to be an equal-armed cross, with a huge central space beneath the dome. Secondary spaces and structures would produce a very active rhythm. By the time Michelangelo died, a considerable part of St. Peter's had been built in the form in which we know it.

Michelangelo's sculpture after 1545 was limited to two *Pietàs* that he executed for himself. The first one, begun in 1550 and left unfinished, was meant for his own tomb. He began the *Rondanini Pietà* in Milan in 1555, and he was working on it on February 12, 1564 when he took ill. He died six days later in Rome and was buried in Florence.

Michelangelo excelled in poetry, sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the supreme master of representing the human body. His idealized and expressive works have been a major influence from his own time to ours.

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HARVEY MILK

Born: May 22, 1930

Woodmere, New York

Died: November 27, 1978

San Francisco, California

American politician and civil rights activist

San Francisco city politician Harvey Milk helped open the door for gays and lesbians in the United States by championing civil rights for homosexuals (those sexually attracted to members of the same sex). Since Milk's murder in 1978, he has remained a symbol of activism. However, Milk was not a one-issue politician. For him, gay issues were merely one part of an overall human rights vision. During his tragically short political career, Milk battled for a wide range of social changes in such areas as education, public transportation, child care, and low-income housing.

As a boy

Harvey Bernard Milk was born on May 22, 1930, in Woodmere, New York. His grandfather, an immigrant from Lithuania, was the owner of a respected department store. Milk's father, William, was also involved in the retail clothing trade. By his early teens, Milk was already aware of his homosexuality, but he chose to keep it to himself. In high school, he was active in sports and was considered a class clown. He developed a passion for opera and would frequently go alone to the Metropolitan Opera House in New York City.

In 1947 Milk entered New York State College for Teachers in Albany, New York. After earning his degree in 1951, Milk joined

the navy. He served as a chief petty officer on a submarine rescue ship during the Korean War (1950–53), in which American forces aided the South Korean fight against North Korea. Eventually he reached the rank of junior lieutenant before his honorable discharge in 1955.

Looking for a career path

Returning to New York, Milk took a job teaching high school. By this time, Milk was living openly with his lover, Joe Campbell, though he still kept his homosexuality hidden from his family. After a couple of years, Milk left teaching. He tried his hand at a number of other occupations before landing a job with the Wall Street investment firm Bache and Company in 1963. At Bache, Milk discovered that he had a knack for finance and investment, and his rise through the corporate world was swift.

In spite of his lifestyle, Milk's political and social values were conservative through the early 1960s. As the decade progressed, however, his views gradually began to change. Milk's new lover, Jack Galen McKinley, worked in theater, and through him Milk became involved as well. He was particularly interested in the experimental work of director Tom O'Horgan (1926–). Since the presence of gays in the theater world was very visible, Milk began to come to terms with his homosexual identity. At the same time, his overall world view began to move away from the mainstream, or what is typical, and toward a more left-leaning one.

In San Francisco

In 1968 McKinley was hired as stage director for O'Horgan's San Francisco pro-



Harvey Milk.

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duction of the musical *Hair*. Milk decided to move with McKinley to California, where he got a job in finance. Eventually, the conflict between his personal and professional lives became too much for Milk. During a 1970 protest of the American invasion of Cambodia, Milk burned his BankAmericard in front of a crowd of people. He was fired from his job later that day.

With his ties to mainstream life now broken, Milk returned to New York and theater work. By this time he was sporting long hair and a beard, looking more or less like an aging hippie. In 1972 he moved with his new partner, Scott Smith, back to San Francisco,

where the pair opened a camera shop on Castro Street, in the heart of what was becoming the city's gay neighborhood.

The Mayor of Castro Street

Milk entered the political arena for the first time in 1973 after being angered by the Watergate scandal. (Named after the building in which a burglary took place, Watergate involved political cover-ups that ultimately led to the resignation of President Richard Nixon [1913–1994].) Hoping to produce change through politics, Milk decided to run for a spot on the Board of Supervisors, San Francisco's city council. Using the gay community as his voting base, Milk sought to develop an alliance with other minorities in the city.

Of the thirty-two candidates in the race, Milk came in tenth. Though he lost the election, he gained enough support to put him on the city's political map. Because of his popularity in his own largely gay district, he became known as "the Mayor of Castro Street." Milk spent much of the next year preparing for his next election campaign, including taking on a more mainstream look. He also revitalized the Castro Village Association as a powerful civic organization and launched the popular Castro Street Fair. In addition, he conducted a voter registration drive that signed up two thousand new voters, and he began writing a newspaper column for the *Bay Area Reporter*.

Milk ran for supervisor again in 1975. Although he gained the support of several important labor unions, he lost again, this time placing seventh. In recognition of Milk's growing power base, however, newly elected Mayor George Moscone (1929–1978)

appointed Milk to the Board of Permit Appeals. This would become Milk's first public office. After just a few weeks, however, Milk announced his intention to run for the state assembly. That announcement led to his removal from his city post.

Milk ran against the Democratic party on the campaign theme "Harvey Milk versus the Machine." Milk lost yet again, by a mere four thousand votes. By this time, however, he had established a political machine of his own, the San Francisco Gay Democratic Club. In 1977, on his third try, Milk was finally elected to the Board of Supervisors, becoming the first openly gay elected official in the city's history.

Milk's agenda

Several key themes characterized Milk's successful campaign as well as his short career as a city official. One was his demand that government respond to the needs of individuals. Another was his ongoing emphasis on gay rights. A third theme was the fight to preserve the unique character of the city's neighborhoods.

As city supervisor, Milk was the driving force behind the passage of a gay-rights law that prohibited discrimination, or unequal treatment, in housing and employment based on sexual orientation. At his urging, the city announced a drive to hire more gay and lesbian police officers. He also started programs that benefited minorities, workers, and the elderly. Milk then gained national attention for his role in defeating a state senate proposal that would have prohibited gays and lesbians from teaching in public schools in California.

A life ended

On November 27, 1978, Milk and Mayor Moscone were shot to death in City Hall by Dan White (1946–1985), a former city supervisor who had quit the board to protest the passage of the city's gay rights law. In his trial for the killings, White's attorneys employed what came to be known as the Twinkie Defense. They claimed that the defendant had eaten so much junk food that his judgment had become impaired, or damaged, and that he had little control over his actions. White was convicted only of voluntary manslaughter, meaning he would receive the lightest sentence possible for a person who had admitted to intentionally killing someone. He served five years in prison before being paroled. On October 21, 1985, White committed suicide.

The outcome outraged homosexuals and their supporters across the United States. In San Francisco, riots erupted, resulting in hundreds of injuries, a dozen burned police cars, and about \$250,000 in property damage. The following night, thousands of people flocked to Castro Street to celebrate what would have been Milk's forty-ninth birthday.

Since his death, Milk has become a symbol for the gay community of both what has been achieved and what remains to be done. He has been immortalized in the names of the Harvey Milk Democratic Club (formerly the San Francisco Gay Democratic Club), Harvey Milk High School in New York, and San Francisco's annual Harvey Milk Memorial Parade. In 1985 the film *The Times of Harvey Milk* won the Academy Award for best documentary. Ten years later, *Harvey Milk*, an opera co-commissioned by the Houston Grand Opera, the New York City Opera, and the San Francisco Opera, opened in Houston.

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JOHN STUART MILL

Born: May 20, 1806

London, England

Died: May 8, 1873

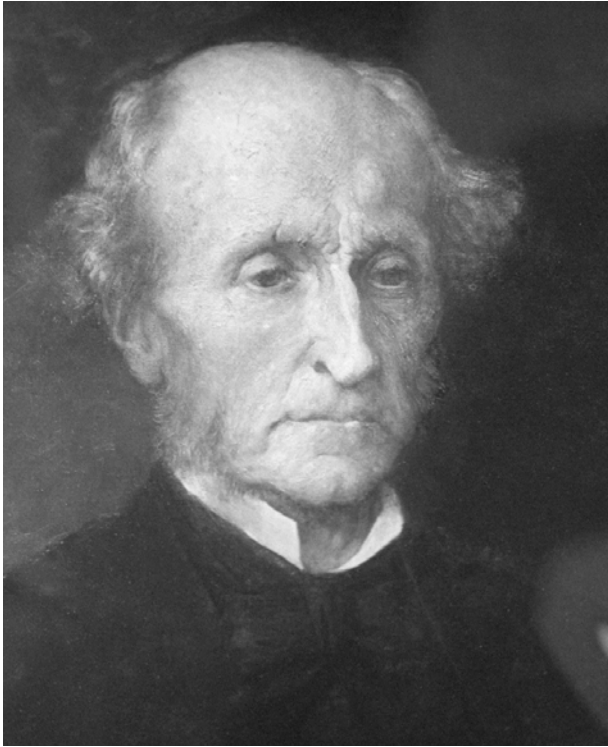
Avignon, France

English philosopher and economist

The English philosopher and economist (someone who studies the buying and selling of goods and services) John Stuart Mill was the most influential British thinker of the nineteenth century. He is known for his writings on logic and scientific method and for his many essays on social and political life.

Early years and education

John Stuart Mill was born the oldest of nine children on May 20, 1806, in London, England, to James and Harriet Burrow Mill. His father, originally trained as a minister, had come from Scotland to take up a career as a journalist. In 1808 James Mill began his lifelong association with Jeremy Bentham (1748–1832), the utilitarian (a philosophy



John Stuart Mill.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

saying that anything useful is positive and that to determine if an action is right, the usefulness of its consequences is the answer) philosopher. Mill shared the common belief of nineteenth-century psychologists that a child's character and performance are the result of the experiences and relationships he or she has as a child. With this view, he attempted to make his son into a philosopher by totally supervising his education.

John began the study of Greek at the age of three and took up Latin between his seventh and eighth years. From six to ten each morning the boy recited his lessons, and by the age of twelve he had mastered material

that was equal to a university degree in classics. He then took up the study of logic, mathematics, and political economy with the same energy. In addition to his own studies, Mill also tutored his brothers and sisters for three hours daily. Throughout his early years, Mill was treated as a younger equal by his father's friends, who were among the greatest intellectuals in England.

Only later did Mill realize that he never had a childhood. The most satisfying experiences he recalled from his boyhood were walks, music, reading *Robinson Crusoe*, and a year he spent in France. Before going abroad, Mill had never associated with anyone his own age. A year with Bentham's relatives in France gave young Mill a taste of normal family life and another language.

When he was sixteen, Mill began a debating society of utilitarians to discuss and make popular the ideas of his father, Bentham, and others. He also began to publish on various issues, writing nearly fifty articles and reviews before he was twenty. But in 1823, at his father's insistence, Mill cast off his interest in a political career and accepted a position at East India Company (a successful trading firm), where he remained for thirty-five years.

Adult life

Thomas Carlyle (1795–1881) once described Mill's life as "the autobiography of a steam engine." Nonetheless, in 1826 Mill underwent a mental crisis. He felt empty of satisfaction even with all of his knowledge. Mill eventually overcame his depression by opening himself to poetry. When he was twenty-five, he met Harriet Taylor, and she became the most important influence of his

life. Although she was married, they maintained a close relationship for twenty years, eventually marrying a few years after her husband's death.

“System of logic”

The main purpose of Mill's philosophic works was to repair the British empirical (experimental) tradition extending from English philosopher John Locke (1632–1704). He overcame much of the confusion of Locke by distinguishing between the connotation, or understood meaning, of terms and the denotation, or real meaning. Mill understood logic as knowledge by inference (the act of transferring a meaning from one thing to another).

Mill's logic concludes with an analysis of the methods of the social sciences. However, the variety of conditioning factors and the lack of control and repeatability of experiments weaken the effectiveness of both the experimental method and deductive (coming to a conclusion by reasoning) attempts. The proper method of the social sciences is a mixture: deductions from the inferential understandings provided by both psychology (study of the mind) and sociology (study of society and groups).

Mill's ideas

Mill suggested that there are higher pleasures and that men should be educated to these higher dreams, for a democratic government based on agreement is only as good as the education and tolerance of its citizenry. This argument is put forth in Mill's famous essay, “On Liberty.” Therein the classic formula of liberalism (political philosophy believing in progress, individual freedom, and protection of rights) is stated: the state

exists for man, and hence the only justifiable interference upon personal liberty is “self-protection.”

The great sadness of Mill's later years was the unexpected death of his wife in 1858. He took a house in Avignon, France, in order to be near her grave and divided his time between there and London. He won election to the House of Commons in 1865, although he refused to campaign. He died on May 8, 1873.

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EDNA ST. VINCENT MILLAY

Born: February 22, 1892

Rockland, Maine

Died: October 19, 1950

Austerlitz, New York

American poet

Edna St. Vincent Millay was an American lyric (expressing direct and personal feeling) poet whose personal life and verse reflected the attitudes of rebellious youth during the 1920s.



Edna St. Vincent Millay.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Early life and education

Edna St. Vincent Millay was born in Rockland, Maine, on February 22, 1892, one of Henry Tollman Millay and Cora Buzzelle Millay's three daughters. Her father worked as a teacher. Edna's parents divorced when she was eight, and she moved with her mother and sisters to Camden, Maine. Her mother worked as a nurse to support the family. She encouraged her daughters to be independent and to appreciate books and music. Edna studied piano and considered a music career, but when one of her first poems appeared in *St. Nicholas* magazine, she decided to become a writer. "Renascence," a

long poem written when she was nineteen, appeared in a collection called *The Lyric Year* (1912) and remains a favorite. A wealthy friend, impressed with Edna's talent, helped her attend Vassar College in New York.

Begins writing career

Following her graduation in 1917, Millay settled in New York's Greenwich Village and began to support herself by writing. Her first volume, *Renascence and Other Poems* (1917), brought her some attention. She also wrote short stories under the pseudonym (false writing name) Nancy Boyd. *A Few Figs from Thistles* appeared in 1920. In 1921 she issued *Second April* and three short plays, one of which, *Aria da Capo*, is a delicate but effective satire (making fun of) on war.

In 1923 Millay published *The Harp Weaver and Other Poems*, which won the Pulitzer Prize. She also married Eugen Jan Boissevain, a wealthy Dutchman. In 1925 they bought a farm near Austerlitz, New York. Millay participated in the defense of Nicola Sacco (1891–1927) and Bartolomeo Vanzetti (1888–1927), two Italian anarchists (those who rebel against any authority or ruling power) who had been accused of murdering two men in a Massachusetts robbery. Many people believed that the two men were charged only because they were foreigners and because of their political beliefs. In 1925 Millay was hired to write an opera with composer Deems Taylor (1885–1966); *The King's Henchman* (1927) was the most successful American opera up to that time. That year, after Sacco and Vanzetti were sentenced to death, she wrote the poem, "Justice Denied in Massachusetts," and also contributed to *Fear*, a pamphlet on the case.

Addresses social topics

Millay issued *Buck in the Snow* (1928), *Fatal Interview* (1931), and *Wine from These Grapes* (1934). She tried a dramatic dialogue on the state of the world in *Conversation at Midnight* (1937), but the subject was beyond her grasp. She returned to the lyric mode in *Huntsman, What Quarry* (1939). The careless expression of her outrage at fascism (a political movement that places nation and race above the individual and supports a government run by a single leader) in *Make Bright the Arrows* (1940) took away from its power. *The Murder of Lidice* (1942) was written in response to the destruction of a Czechoslovakian town by the Nazis (members of the controlling power in Germany from 1933 until 1945). Then Millay began to lose her audience; *Collected Sonnets* (1941) and *Collected Lyrics* (1943) did not win it back.

Millay's last years were dogged by illness and loss. Many of her friends died, and her husband's income disappeared when the Nazis invaded Holland during World War II (1939–45; a war in which Germany, Italy, and Japan fought against Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). In 1944 a nervous breakdown kept her in the hospital for several months. Her husband died in 1949; on October 19, 1950, she followed him. Some of her last verse appeared after her death in *Mine the Harvest* (1954).

Edna St. Vincent Millay's poems' included such topics as sex, the liberated (freed from traditional roles) woman, and social justice. Though she wrote in traditional forms, her subject matter; her mixed tone of unconcerned calm, courage, and extreme force; and her lyric gifts were highly appreciated in her time.

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ARTHUR MILLER

Born: October 17, 1915

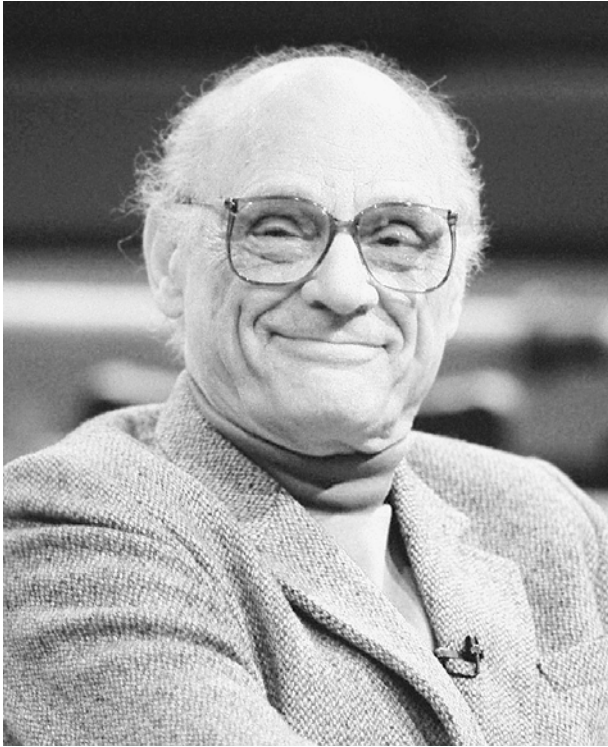
New York, New York

American dramatist, novelist, and screenwriter

Best known for his play *Death of a Salesman*, American playwright, novelist, and screenwriter Arthur Miller is considered one of the major dramatists of twentieth-century American theater.

Early years

Arthur Miller was born on October 17, 1915, in New York City, the second of Isidore and Augusta Barnett Miller's three children. His father had come to the United States from Austria-Hungary and ran a small coat-manufacturing business. His mother, a native of New York, had been a public school teacher.



Arthur Miller.

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Miller was only an average student. He was much more fond of playing sports than doing his schoolwork. Only after graduating from high school in 1932 did Miller think about becoming a writer, when he read Russian novelist Fyodor Dostoyevsky's (1821–1881) *The Brothers Karamazov*. Miller attended City College in New York for two weeks, then worked briefly with his father and in an auto-parts warehouse to earn money to attend the University of Michigan. He enrolled there two years later, continuing to work as a dishwasher and as a night editor at a newspaper to help pay his expenses while he studied drama. He graduated in 1938, having won several awards for playwriting.

Miller returned to New York City to a variety of jobs, including writing for the Federal Theater Project, a government-sponsored program that ended before any of his work could be produced. Because of an old football injury, he was rejected for military service, but he was hired to tour army camps to collect material for a movie, *The Story of G. I. Joe*. His notes from these tours were published as *Situation Normal* (1944). That same year the Broadway production of his play *The Man Who Had All the Luck* opened, closing after four performances. In 1945 his novel *Focus*, an attack on anti-Semitism (the hatred of Jewish people), appeared.

Three successful plays

Miller's career blossomed with the opening of *All My Sons* on Broadway in 1947. The play, a tragedy (a drama having a sad conclusion), won three prizes and fascinated audiences across the country. Then *Death of a Salesman* (1949) brought Miller the Pulitzer Prize for drama, international fame, and an estimated income of two million dollars. The words of its hero, Willy Loman, have been heard in at least seventeen languages as well as on movie screens everywhere.

By the time of Miller's third Broadway play, *The Crucible* (1953), audiences were ready to accept his belief that "a poetic drama rooted in American speech and manners" was the only way to produce a tragedy out of the common man's life. The play was set in Salem, Massachusetts, in 1692, a time when many people were accused of being witches and were burned alive. Miller's play pointed out how similar those events were to Senator Joseph McCarthy's (1909–1957) investigations of anti-American activities during the

early 1950s, which led to wild accusations against many public figures. Miller himself was called before the House Committee on Un-American Activities in June 1956 and was asked to give the names of guilty parties. He stated, "My conscience will not permit me to use the name of another person and bring trouble to him." He was convicted of contempt of (lack of respect for) Congress, but the conviction was reversed in 1958.

Hit-or-miss efforts

Two of Miller's one-act plays, *A View from the Bridge* and *A Memory of Two Mondays* (1955), were social dramas focused on the inner life of working men; neither had the power of *Death of a Salesman*. Nor did his film script, *The Misfits* (1961). His next play, *After the Fall* (1964), was based on his own life. His second wife, actress Marilyn Monroe (1926–1962), was the model for one of the characters. *Incident at Vichy* (1965), a long, one-act play based on a true story set in France during World War II (1939–45; when Germany, Italy, and Japan battled France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States), examined the nature of guilt and the depth of human hatred. In *The Price* (1968) Miller returned to domestic drama in his portrayal of a tight, intense struggle between two brothers, almost strangers to each other, brought together by their father's death. It is Miller at the height of his powers, cementing his position as a major American dramatist.

But *The Price* proved to be Miller's last major Broadway success. His next work, *The Creation of the World and Other Business*, was a series of comic sketches first produced on Broadway in 1972. It closed after only twenty performances. All of Miller's works after that

premiered outside of New York. Miller staged the musical *Up From Paradise* (1974) at the University of Michigan. Another play, *The Archbishop's Ceiling*, was presented in 1977 at the Kennedy Center in Washington, D.C.

In the 1980s Miller produced a number of short pieces. *The American Clock* was based on Studs Terkel's (1912–) history of the Great Depression (a slump in the country's system of producing, distributing, and using goods and services that led to almost half of the industrial workers in the country losing their jobs during the 1930s). *Elegy for a Lady* and *Some Kind of Story* were two one-act plays that were staged together in 1982. Miller's *Danger, Memory!* was composed of the short pieces *I Can't Remember Anything* and *Clara*. All of these later plays have been regarded by critics as minor works. In the mid-1990s Miller adapted *The Crucible* for a film version starring Daniel Day-Lewis and Joan Allen.

Later years

Despite the absence of any major successes since the mid-1960s, Miller seems secure in his reputation as a major figure in American drama. In addition to his Pulitzer Prize in 1949, his awards include the Theatre Guild National Prize, 1944; Antoinette Perry (Tony) Award (given for achievement in the theater), 1947 and 1953; Emmy Award (given for achievement in television broadcasting), 1967; George Foster Peabody Award, 1981; John F. Kennedy Award for Lifetime Achievement, 1984; Dorothy and Lillian Gish Prize, 1999; National Book Foundation lifetime achievement award, 2001; New York City College Alumni Association medal for artistic devotion to New York, 2001; and the Japan Art Association lifetime achievement award, 2001.

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HENRY MILLER

Born: December 26, 1891

New York, New York

Died: June 7, 1980

Pacific Palisades, California

American writer

American author Henry Miller was a major force in literature in the late 1950s, largely because his two most important novels, banned from publication and sale in the United States for many years, tested federal laws concerning art and pornography (material intended to cause sexual excitement).

Early years

Henry Miller was born on December 26, 1891, in New York, New York. His father was a tailor. From an early age he rebelled against his parents' devotion to work and a "respectable" life. In *Black Spring* (1936; United States pub-

lication, 1963), Miller wrote that "I was born in the street and raised in the street.... In the street you learn what human beings really are." Miller liked to read from an early age, finishing many adventure stories as well as classics of literature. He was an excellent student in high school and enrolled at the City College of New York, only to leave after two months. From 1909 to 1924 he tried different jobs, including working for a cement company, assisting his father at a tailor shop, and sorting mail for the Post Office. While in the messenger department of Western Union, he started writing a novel.

Goes to France to write

Throughout this period Miller had a troubled personal life, including two unsuccessful marriages (throughout his life he married five women and divorced all of them). Determined to become a writer, Miller went to Paris, France, where he remained for nearly ten years with very little money. In 1934 he composed *Tropic of Cancer* (published in the United States in 1961), a loosely constructed autobiographical (based on his own life) novel describing his struggles during his first years in Paris. Famous for its striking descriptions of real life, it won praise from other writers such as T. S. Eliot (1888–1965) and Ezra Pound (1885–1972). Many were outraged by the book's sexual passages, however, and Miller had to go to court to lift a ban on his work. The publicity helped the book become a best-seller, although critics continued to argue over its value.

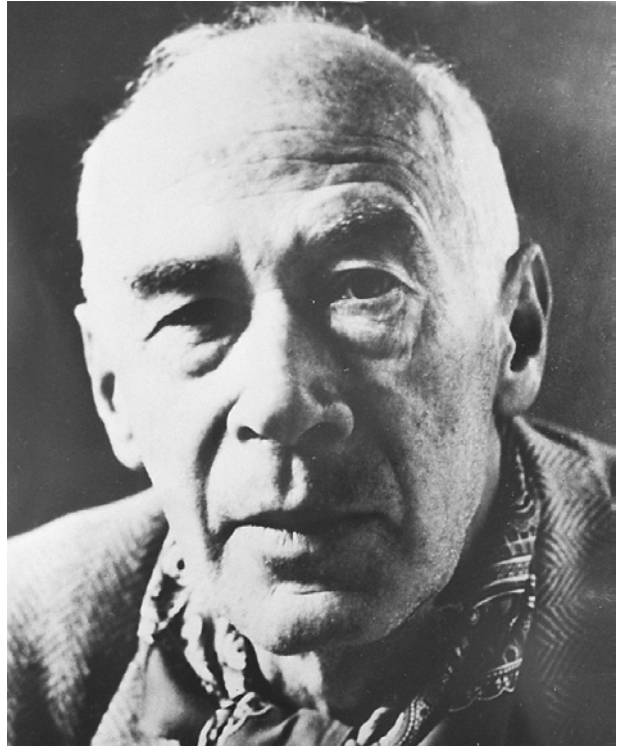
Black Spring and *Tropic of Capricorn* (1939; United States publication, 1962) are similar in style and feeling to *Tropic of Cancer*, drawing from the experiences of Miller's boy-

hood in Brooklyn, New York, and his early years overseas. In 1939 Miller visited his friend, the British novelist Lawrence Durrell (1912–1990), in Greece. *The Colossus of Maroussi* (1941), an account of his adventures with the natives of the Greek islands and one of the finest modern travel books, resulted.

Back in America

Returning to the United States in 1940, Miller settled permanently in Big Sur, on the Pacific coast of California. His sharp and often hilarious criticisms of America are recorded in *The Air-conditioned Nightmare* (1945) and *Remember to Remember* (1947). *The Time of the Assassins* (1956), a thoughtful study of the French poet Arthur Rimbaud (1854–1891), is a statement of Miller's artistic beliefs. *Big Sur and the Oranges of Hieronymus Bosch* (1958) deals with Miller's California friends.

Miller's major fiction of this period was the massive three-volume work *The Rosy Crucifixion*, which included *Sexus* (1949), *Plexus* (1953), and *Nexus* (1960). These contain retellings of his earlier adventures but lack the violent language of his earlier works. Miller's correspondence with Lawrence Durrell was published in 1962, and his letters to writer Anaïs Nin (1903–1977) were published in 1965. His *The World of Lawrence: A Passionate Appreciation* (1980) is about the life and career of writer D. H. Lawrence (1885–1930). *Opus Pistorum* (1984) is a novel thought to have been written by Miller in the early 1940s when he needed money. Most critics consider the work to be pure pornography, and some question whether Miller was the actual author.



Henry Miller.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Later years

In Miller's later years he was admired mainly for his role as spokesman and thinker. Criticizing the empty materialism (focus on the acquiring of personal possessions) of modern existence, he called for a new religion of body and spirit based upon the ideas of the writers Friedrich Nietzsche (1844–1900), Walt Whitman (1819–1892), and D. H. Lawrence. Miller's novels, despite shocking material and offensive language, express deep feeling. Their freedom of language and subject also helped lead the way for Beat Generation (intellectuals who also scorned the values of middle-class society) writers such as Jack

Kerouac (1922–1969) and Allen Ginsberg (1926–1997). Miller lived his final years alone pursuing his lifelong interest in watercolor painting. He died on June 7, 1980, in Pacific Palisades, California.

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SLOBODAN MILOSEVIC

Born: August 20, 1941

Pozarevac, Yugoslavia

Yugoslav president and Serbian political leader

Slobodan Milosevic was president of Serbia (a republic, or member state, of Yugoslavia) from 1989 to 1997 and president of Yugoslavia from 1997 to 2000. In 2001 he was sent to stand trial at the international war crimes tribunal (court) in The Hague, Netherlands, for his actions during the civil war that occurred in Yugoslavia during the 1990s.

The young Milosevic

Slobodan Milosevic was born on August 20, 1941, in Pozarevac, a small town near Belgrade, Serbia, the capital of Yugoslavia.

Slobodan was the second of two sons of Svetozar and Stanislava Milosevic. His ancestors belonged to the Vasojevici clan from Montenegro, another republic of Yugoslavia. His father finished Eastern Orthodox seminary (a place where people study to be priests) in Cetinje, Montenegro, and then studied at the School of Theology in Belgrade. His mother was a teacher in Pozarevac. People remember her as a strict, hardworking woman and a devoted Communist (a person who believes that goods should be owned and equally distributed by the government). When Slobodan was young, his parents separated and his father went to live in Montenegro. It is believed that his parents both eventually took their own lives—his father in 1962 and his mother in 1973.

Milosevic finished his elementary and high school education in Pozarevac. According to his teachers and classmates, young Milosevic was an outstanding high school student, always attentive and always neatly dressed. Although quiet and solitary, he was politically active and published several of his writings in the local high school journal. While still in high school, Milosevic met his future wife, Mirjana (Mira) Markovic, whose family ranked among the most prominent Communists in Serbia. Her father was a hero from World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis [Germany, Italy, and Japan] and the Allies [the United States, Britain, China and other nations]). Her uncle later became one of the leading politicians in post-war Serbia, and her aunt was a personal secretary of Josip Broz Tito (1892–1980) who was the Communist president of Yugoslavia from 1953 to 1980. The young couple's friends did not doubt that the love between Mirjana and Slobodan was sincere and gen-

uine—theirs was a bond between two similar souls. They raised two children.

A career in the making

In 1960 Milosevic was a law student at the University of Belgrade. He was an excellent student who was active in the university section of the League of Communists (the official name for the Communist Party), where he met Ivan Stambolic, a nephew of one of the most powerful Serbian Communist leaders. Many believe that it was Stambolic who elevated the political career of Milosevic.

In 1964, after graduating from the university, Milosevic was appointed as an economic adviser and a coordinator of the information service in the government of Belgrade. In 1968 he became a deputy director of a state-owned gas company, Tehnogas. After Stambolic left Tehnogas in 1973 and became the prime minister of Serbia, Milosevic rose to the post of director. Five years later he became president of the powerful Belgrade bank Beobanka. In 1982 he became a member of the collective presidency of the League of Communists of Serbia, and two years later a chief of the City of Belgrade Party Organization. The collective presidency of the League of Communists of Serbia elected Milosevic as its president in 1986.

A defining moment

On April 24, 1987, Milosevic visited Kosovo Polje, a suburb of the capital of the self-governing Serbian province of Kosovo, and attempted to calm the group of Serbs and Montenegrins who were protesting the continuous mistreatment by the Albanian majority. When an excited crowd tried to enter the



Slobodan Milosevic.

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building to speak directly to Milosevic, they were beaten back by the local police. Milosevic strode out and shouted to the crowd: "No one has the right to beat you!" These simple words changed the structure of Serbian politics. Shortly after, in a series of heated sessions of the League of Communists of Serbia, Milosevic succeeded in removing Stambolic and his associates from the Serbian political arena. In 1989 Milosevic became president of Serbia.

The disagreement among Serbia's Communists over the Kosovo province shook the already crumbling Yugoslavia. After Serbia took back authority over the self-governing provinces of Kosovo and Vojvodina, the

prospect that Serbia might dominate all of Yugoslavia fueled nationalism (a patriotic desire for one's people to have its own nation) in the Yugoslav republics of Slovenia and Croatia and gave a boost to secessionist movements (or movements to withdraw from a nation). Following the collapse of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia in 1990, multiparty elections were held in each of the six Yugoslav republics. While Milosevic and his Socialist Party retained power in Serbia, forces that openly desired secession from Yugoslavia came into power in almost all other republics (with the exception of Montenegro).

The nationalist emotions that spread throughout Yugoslavia inspired ugly memories among Serbs who had been subjected to genocide (the intentional destruction of a people by mass murder) during World War II. Milosevic, who had already established himself as the leading champion of Serbian rights, was the natural ally to more than two million Serbs living outside the borders of Serbia. When the talks among the various Yugoslav republics were called off in 1991, the violent breakup of Yugoslavia was near.

Civil war

The collapse of Yugoslavia and the resulting civil war among the breakaway nations brought new attention to Milosevic. In the fighting that began in April 1992, Milosevic avoided personal involvement, leaving Serbian military groups to carry out attacks against the newly established nations of Croatia and Bosnia-Herzegovina. Nevertheless, many critics, particularly in the West, portrayed him as a merciless tyrant who wanted to create a greater Serbia. At the same time,

Milosevic and his Socialist Party appeared to be secure in their Belgrade headquarters.

By late 1995 United Nations-imposed sanctions had destroyed the Serbian economy, and Milosevic agreed to a peace plan during talks at an air base in Dayton, Ohio. He attempted to rebuild his image, since he was thought by many to be the force behind war crimes and millions of deaths. Milosevic began making strides at winning a more favorable public opinion, calling for tolerance, or respect, among ethnic groups and portraying himself as a heroic and peace-promoting defender of Serbs. Despite the near-40 percent unemployment and the overall decline in quality of life among Serbs, he was able to retain supporters.

Losing hold on power

In 1997 Milosevic's second and final term as president was at an end, but he hoped to continue his presidency by using a legal trick. On July 23, 1997, he changed his title from president of Serbia to president of the Yugoslav federation (which now consisted only of Serbia and its junior partner, Montenegro) in an attempt to retain his term. Then, in 1999, Milosevic refused to withdraw troops who were trying to stop an independence movement in Kosovo. In retaliation, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), led by the United States, bombed Serbia for two and a half months. Serbian forces, nonetheless, caused a significant amount of suffering in Kosovo.

On July 7, 2000, Yugoslavia's federal parliament enacted changes to the country's constitution that would allow Milosevic to serve two more four-year terms. However, Milosevic resigned in October 2000 because of the

massive popular revolt against him. Six month later, Milosovic was arrested by police after he threatened to kill himself, his wife, and his daughter. Only two months later, in late June 2001, he was sent to The Hague to be tried for war crimes, including genocide.

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JOHN MILTON

Born: December 9, 1608

London, England

Died: November 8, 1674

London, England

English poet and essayist

The English poet John Milton was a champion of liberty. As a Protestant, he believed that the individual reader should interpret the Bible. He is chiefly famous for his epic (a long poem centered around a legendary hero) poem *Paradise Lost* and for his defense of uncensored (not checked for materials that may be harmful) publication.

Background and education

John Milton was born on December 9, 1608, in London, England. The future poet's father, John Milton, Sr., was a scrivener (a person who draws up deeds and wills). About 1600 he married Sara Jeffrey, the wealthy daughter of a merchant-tailor. Three of their children survived infancy: Anne, John, and Christopher.

The young Milton was known for his devotion to his studies, and his early interest in poetry. From his father, who was an amateur composer (a writer of music), young John developed the love of music, which later spread through his poetry. After private tutoring, he entered St. Paul's School in about 1620. Admitted to Christ's College at the age of fifteen, he intended to become a priest in the Church of England. Because of a disagreement with his tutor, he was rusticated (temporarily expelled) in 1626. Back at Cambridge about April 1626, Milton was assigned a different tutor and resumed the study of logic, ethics, Greek, Latin, and Hebrew. He composed Latin poems and epigrams (short poems dealing pointedly with a single thought or event and often ending with a clever turn of thought).

In 1628 Milton wrote his first major English poem, *On the Death of a Fair Infant, Dying of the Cough*, about the death of his sister's baby. A year later he wrote *On the Morning of Christ's Nativity*, celebrating the harmonizing power of divine love.

Milton, in one of his college orations (public speeches), broke with the usual practice of speaking in Latin by delivering English verse, beginning "Hail native language." Thereafter, he wrote Latin verse occasionally and a series of sonnets (poems of fourteen



John Milton.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

lines with a specific rhyming pattern) in Italian, but he composed increasingly in English.

The graceful thirties

After receiving bachelor of arts and master of arts degrees in 1629 and 1632, Milton lived in his family's suburban home in Hammersmith, England, and then at their country estate in Horton, Buckinghamshire, England. He continued studies in theology, history, mathematics, and literature, and participated in social and cultural life in London and the country. At this time he wrote sonnets, lyrics, and *A Mask* (better known as *Comus*; a mixture of song, dance, pageantry and poetry).

Milton's themes were both particular and universal. In *Lycidas* (1637) he deals with why God allows the good to die young. In 1639, when he learned that a friend had died, he penned a moving Latin elegy (poetry for the dead), finding solace in Christian hope. By this time Milton had abandoned the idea of entering the ministry. He was, however, dedicated to making the Church of England more Protestant (non-Catholic).

In 1638 and 1639 Milton toured France and Italy. His good looks, enthusiasm, and his ability to speak many languages helped him to enter polite society abroad. He intended also to go to Greece, but news of the growing political and religious crisis in England led him to return to London.

Crucial decades, 1640–1660

It was by writing prose that Milton found opportunity to serve his God and country. There was a civil war in England that lasted from 1642 to 1648. King Charles I (1600–1649), who was Catholic, was opposed by a large number of his subjects, who were Puritan Protestants. King Charles was defeated and executed. In 1641 and 1642 Milton poured out tracts (leaflets) opposing the control over religion held by the Catholic bishops. He felt their powers were based on man-made traditions, self-interest, and a combination of ignorance, superstition, and deliberate lies.

In 1644 Milton's *Of Education* dealt with another kind of domestic freedom: how to develop discipline, reasonableness, broad culture, all-round ability, and independence of judgment in schoolboys. The same year saw *Areopagitica*, his defense of man's right to free speech and discussion as the best means of

advancing truth. As the civil war ended, Milton turned to condemning royal tyranny (the abuse of power). *The Tenure of Kings and Magistrates* (1649) argued that men have a natural right to freedom and that contracts they make with rulers are voluntary and can be ended. Soon after its publication Milton began a decade as the revolutionary government's secretary for foreign tongues. His chief duty was to translate state letters into Latin. For some years, however, Milton had been losing his eyesight, and by early 1652 he was totally blind.

Milton had married Mary Powell in May 1642. In 1656, four years after his first wife's death, Milton married Kathrine Woodcock. Two years later she died after giving birth to a child, and he tenderly memorialized her in a sonnet, *To my late departed Saint*. In 1663 he married Elizabeth Minshell.

Milton heroically persisted despite his misfortunes. During the crisis preceding restoration of the monarchy he wrote several tracts. In *A Treatise of Civil Power* (1659) he again urged toleration and separation of Church and state. *Ready and Easy Way* (1660) argued for preservation of a republic, a government in which citizens hold power and vote to elect officials as their representatives in the government.

Triumph in defeat

When Charles II, son of the executed Charles I, regained the throne in 1660, Milton was in danger for supporting the overthrow of the monarchy. Milton was harassed and imprisoned and several of his books were burned. However, he was included in a general pardon.

Paradise Lost, the epic published in 1667, is inspired by the Bible story of the Creation,

the fall of Adam and Eve, the rebellion of Satan against God, and Satan being cast out from heaven. In it Milton tried to convey some insight into God's wisdom and providence, but he did not intend it to be taken literally. *Paradise Lost* is generally regarded as the greatest epic poem in the English language. In 1671 its sequel, *Paradise Regained*, appeared in one volume with *Samson Agonistes*. *Paradise Regained* treats the rejection by Jesus of Satan's temptations. Its central point is that the true hero conquers not by force but by humility and faith in God. *Samson Agonistes* deals with the theme of temptation, dramatizing how the Hebrew strong man yielded to passion and seeming self-interest.

In 1673 Milton reentered public controversy (open to dispute) with *Of True Religion*, a brief defense of Protestantism. Before his death he was planning to publish writings that appeared posthumously (after death): his Latin state papers (1676) and a short history of Moscovia (1682). In 1694 his nephew Edward Phillips published a life of his uncle with an English translation of the state papers.

In the early nineteenth century the Latin manuscript of Milton's *Christian Doctrine* was discovered and translated (1825). In it he systematically set out to free the Scriptures from misinterpretation by discovering what the Bible itself said on such matters as fate, angels, and faith.

Reputation and influence

Milton influenced many writers. Some, like John Dryden (1631–1700), admired his work and used it as the basis for their own writing. Others, including Alexander Pope (1688–1744), poked fun at it. Still others, such as Samuel Johnson (1709–1784),

admitted the worth of Milton's work but disagreed with his religious and political views.

In general, eighteenth-century poets praised him for possessing outstanding spiritual, intellectual, and moral worth. William Blake (1757–1827) and Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822) praised his Satan as a romantic rebel. Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772–1834) praised Milton's artistry and depth. In the 1920s, T. S. Eliot (1888–1965) criticized Milton's verse chiefly because of its influence. However, since about 1930, Milton has again been highly respected for his work.

John Milton died in London on November 8, 1674.

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JOAN MIRÓ

Born: April 20, 1893

Montroig, Spain

Died: December 25, 1983

Palma de Majorca, Spain

Spanish painter

The Spanish painter Joan Miró was one of the first surrealists (artists who created art that emphasized fantastic imagery who were part of a movement called surrealism that began in the early twentieth century). Miró developed a highly personalized visual language that originated from prehistoric and natural sources.

Early life

Joan Miró was born the first son of Michel Miró Adziras and Dolores Ferra on April 20, 1893, in Montroig near Barcelona, Spain. He came from a long line of hard-working craftsmen, and his father also worked as a goldsmith and a watchmaker. Although Miró did poorly at school, he began drawing regularly at the age of eight. (His sketchbooks of 1905 contain nature studies from Tarragona and Palma de Majorca, both areas in Spain). In 1907 he attended the Lonja School of Fine Arts in Barcelona where he received encouragement from his teachers. After a brief period working as a clerk, he attended the Gali School of Art in 1912, also in Barcelona.

Career begins

After Miró completed his artistic education in Barcelona, he produced portraits and landscapes in the Fauve manner, a style of painting popular around 1900 that emphasized brilliant and aggressive colors. He had his first one-man show in Barcelona in 1918 and later that year he became a member of the Agrupacio Courbet, to which the ceramist Joseph Llorenz Artigas belonged.

In 1919 Miró made his first trip to Paris, France, and thereafter he spent the winters in Paris and the summers in Montroig. He met

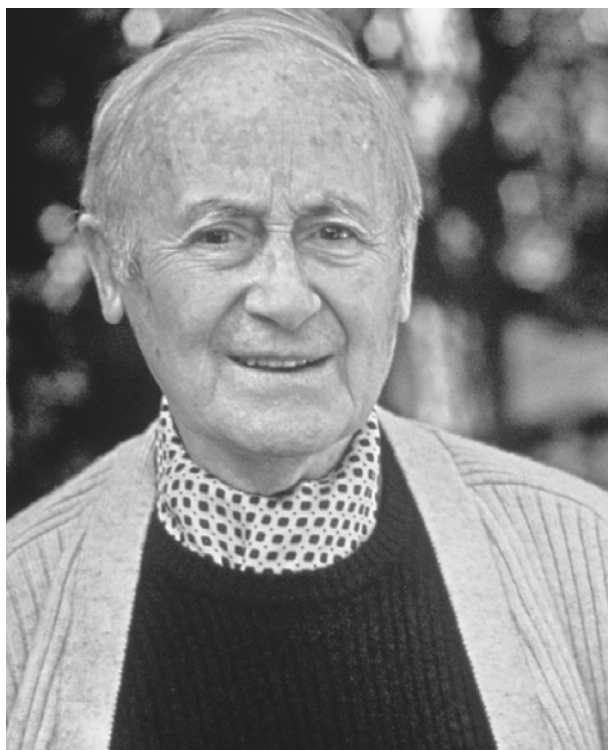
members of the Dada group, an artistic and literary movement which sought to expand the boundaries of conventional (having to do with the common and the unoriginal) art. His first one-man show in Paris was held in 1921 and his paintings of this period reflect cubist (having to do with an artistic movement in the early twentieth century which used geometric shapes) influences. His painting, *Montroig (The Olive Grove)* (1919), for example, has a frontal, geometric pattern greatly influenced by cubism.

The Tilled Field (1923–1924) marked the turning point in Miró's art toward a personal style. In the midst of a landscape with animals and delicately drawn objects are a large ear and eye; thus the person of the painter comes into the picture. The change in his art was furthered by his encounter with the works of Paul Klee (1879–1940), Wassily Kandinsky (1866–1944), and Jean Arp (1887–1966).

Miró's message

Miró's aim was to rediscover the sources of human feeling, to create poetry by way of painting, using a vocabulary of signs and symbols, plastic metaphors (an implied similarity between two different things), and dream images to express definite themes. He had a genuine sense of humor and a lively wit, which also characterized his art. His chief consideration was social, to get close to the great masses of humanity, and he was deeply convinced that art can make a genuine appeal only when returning to the roots of experience. In this respect Miró's attitude can be compared to that of Klee.

Miró was connected with the surrealists from 1924 to 1930. Surrealism was a source of inspiration to him, and he made use of its



Joan Miró.

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methods; however, he never accepted any surrealist "doctrine," or teachings. Rather, his art, like Klee's, seems more connected to modern fantastic art. Under the impact of surrealism Miró painted the *Harlequin's Carnival* (1924–1925) with its frantic movement of semiabstract (having both recognizable and unrecognizable qualities) forms. In 1926 he worked together with Max Ernst (1891–1976) on the sets and costumes for Sergei Diaghilev's ballet *Roméo et Juliette*.

Larger works and legacy

In 1936 Miró fled to Paris during the Spanish Civil War (1936–39; a revolt against

the conservative Republican government). The following year he created a large mural, the *Reaper*, for the Spanish Pavilion at the International Exposition in Paris. His work began to achieve great power through increased simplicity, intensified color, and abstraction, as in the *Bullfight* (1945), *Woman and Bird in Moonlight* (1949), and *Painting* (1953). He was awarded the Grand Prix International at the Venice Biennale for his graphic work.

Miró's most famous monumental works are the two ceramic walls, *Night and Day* (1957–59), for the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) building in Paris; the mural painting (1950) and the ceramic mural (1960) for Harvard University in Cambridge, Massachusetts; and the ceramic mural (1967) for the Guggenheim Museum in New York City. In 1975 Miró demonstrated his devotion to his native country with the donation of the Miró Foundation to the city of Barcelona, Spain. The building, which houses his works and the exhibitions of other artists, was designed by the artist's great friend, Josep Lluís Sert. One exhibition room was dedicated to the showing of works by young artists who had not yet been discovered by the public. Miró died in Palma de Majorca, Spain, on December 25, 1983, at the age of ninety.

Miró enjoyed international acclaim during his long and productive career. He was one of the many outstanding Spaniards—including Pablo Picasso (1881–1973), Juan Gris (1887–1927), Salvador Dalí (1904–1989), and Francis Picabia—who, by belonging to the School of Paris, helped to establish the high esteem in which it was held during

the first half of the twentieth century. And like many of those other artists, Miró continued to energetically produce his art and to experiment with form and subject long after the years of his initial celebrity had passed.

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MOLIÈRE

Born: January 15, 1622

Paris, France

Died: February 17, 1673

Paris, France

French dramatist, writer, and actor

The French dramatist Molière was the master of French comedy. His plays often attacked hypocrisy (pretending to possess qualities one does not actually have). He also directed, acted, and managed theater groups.

Early life

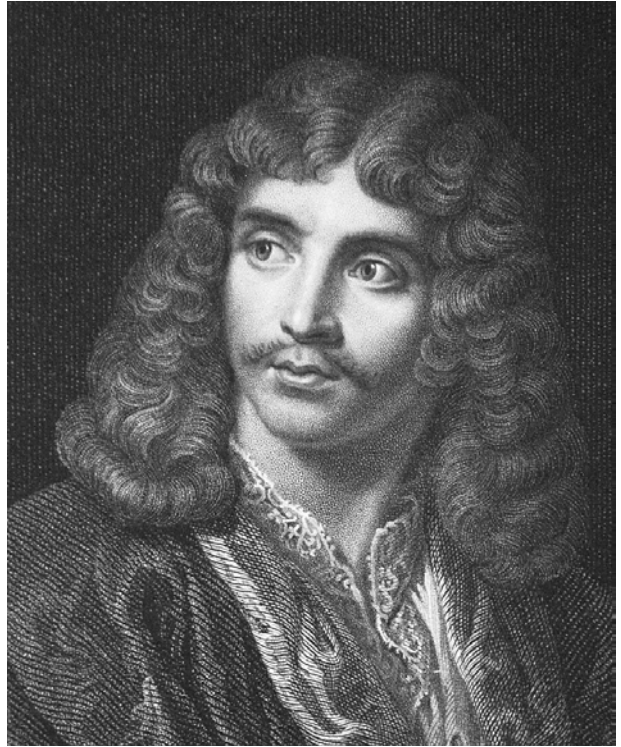
Molière was born Jean Baptiste Poquelin in Paris, France, on January 15, 1622. His father was a successful upholsterer (one who puts soft coverings on chairs) who held the post of official furnisher at the royal court.

Molière had been attracted to the theater since childhood. When Tiberio Fiorelli (called Scaramouche), an Italian actor, came to Paris in 1640, Molière struck up a friendship with him. Molière was educated at the Collège de Clermont, a Jesuit (Catholic order devoted to educational work) institution. There he received a solid classical background, and he may have known some future freethinkers, such as the dramatist Cyrano de Bergerac (1619–1655). After finishing his secondary education, Molière studied law briefly and was allowed to practice in 1641.

Chooses career in theater

Molière was expected to take over the post his father held, but in 1643 he decided to devote himself to the theater. He had met a young actress, Madeleine Béjart, with whom he was to be associated until her death in 1672. Since the theater life was not considered very respectable, he assumed the name “Molière” in order to spare embarrassment to his family. He joined a troupe known as the Illustre Théâtre that included Béjart and her family. By 1644, having served two prison terms as a result of the company’s debts, Molière joined another company with the Béjarts and toured all over France for the next thirteen years. In 1650 Molière became the head of the troupe, and he managed to secure the patronage (support) of the Prince of Conti.

Although little evidence of Molière’s travels is available, it is certain that he and his players learned much while performing in the French provinces. The short, stocky Molière was a hard worker. He frequently acted, sometimes under a clown’s mask, with the troupe he managed. When the company was called to give a performance before Louis



Molière.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

XIV (1638–1715) in 1658, it was Molière’s comedy, *Le Docteur amoureux*, that most amused the king. The king’s brother became patron (supporter) of the troupe, and Molière returned to Paris, the city of his birth.

Success and criticism

In December 1662 Molière presented a comedy, *L’École des femmes*, before the king. It was to be his greatest success. The play centers around Arnolphe, a middle-class man who chooses a child for his bride, whom he then raises in total ignorance. A young rival, unaware of Arnolphe’s identity, tells him exactly how he plans to steal the girl from

under his nose. The play caused a huge protest, known as the “Quarrel of *L'École des femmes*.” Molière’s enemies, jealous of the king’s favor toward him, attacked him as immoral and claimed he had stolen the story from another writer. Molière chose to answer his enemies in the form of a play. His *Critique de l'École des femmes*, presented in June 1663, included a discussion on stage of both the critics and the criticisms. The “Quarrel” served to establish comedy as an accepted form of literature.

In May 1664 Molière was invited to perform *Tartuffe ou l'Imposteur*, an attack on religious hypocrisy, for Louis XIV at Versailles, France. The play angered the Society of the Holy Sacrament, a powerful religious group, and for five long years Molière struggled without success for the right to perform his play. Finally, in 1669, the power of the Society had lessened, and *Tartuffe* was revived with great success at the Palais Royal. *Dom Juan*, first presented in February 1665, is considered one of Molière’s greatest plays, although it was not published until after his death and remained almost unknown until the twentieth century.

Later years

Although Molière enjoyed the personal support of the king, he struggled with illness, marital problems, and depression. Still, during this period he wrote and presented a work that shows his mastery and genius. *Le Misanthrope*, presented in June 1666, pleased his admirers, but it lacked the popular appeal necessary to make it a success. *L'Avare*, presented two years later, failed miserably, and Molière faced extreme financial (related to money) problems. A comedy-ballet, *Le Bour-*

geois gentilhomme (1670), helped bring in the public once again.

Molière had also developed a bad cough, which he tried to mask as a comic device. When overcome by a coughing spell onstage, he exaggerated it in an attempt to make the audience laugh. The condition worsened greatly, but Molière had little faith in medicine. In 1671 *Les Fourberies de Scapin*, a bright comedy similar to his early works, was presented. On February 17, 1673, during the fourth performance of his last work, *Le Malade imaginaire*, Molière began having seizures. He died that same night, attended only by two nuns, having been refused the right to see a priest.

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CLAUDE
MONET

Born: November 14, 1840
Paris, France
Died: December 5, 1926
Giverny, France
French painter

The French painter Claude Monet was the leading figure in the growth of impressionism, a movement in which painters looked to nature for inspiration and used vibrant light and color rather than the solemn browns and blacks of previous paintings.

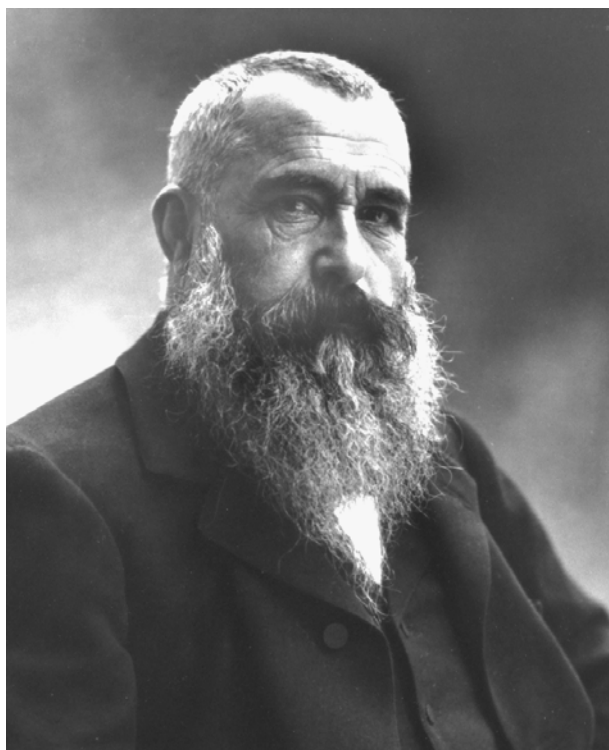
Background and early influences

Claude Monet was born in Paris, France, on November 14, 1840. His father, Adolphe Monet, was a grocer. In 1845 the family moved to Le Havre, France, where Monet's father and uncle ran a business selling supplies for ships. By the time he was fifteen Monet had become popular as a caricaturist (one who makes exaggerated portraits of people). Through an exhibition of his drawings at a local frame shop in 1858, Monet met Eugène Boudin, a landscape painter who became a great influence on the young artist. Boudin introduced Monet to outdoor painting, an activity that soon became his life's work.

By 1859 Monet was determined to pursue an artistic career. He worked at the free Académie Suisse in Paris, and he frequented the Brasserie des Martyrs, a gathering place for Gustave Courbet (1819–1877) and other French painters of the 1850s.

Early period

Monet's studies were interrupted by military service in Algeria (1860–62). In 1862 he entered the studio of Charles Gleyre in Paris and met Pierre-Auguste Renoir (1841–1919), Alfred Sisley (1839–1899), and Jean Frédéric Bazille (1841–1870). During 1863 and 1864 he often worked in the forest at



Claude Monet.

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Fontainebleau, France, with other artists including Théodore Rousseau (1812–1867) and Jean François Millet (1814–1875). At the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War in 1870, Monet traveled to London, England, where he met the art dealer Paul Durand-Ruel. The following year Monet and his wife, Camille, whom he had married in 1870, settled at Argenteuil, France, which became his home for the next six years.

Monet's constant movements during this period were directly related to his artistic ambitions. He was interested in natural light, atmosphere, and color, and he tried to record them in his paintings as accurately as possi-

ble. A striking example of his early style is the *Terrace at the Seaside, Sainte-Adresse* (1866), which contains a shining mixture of bright, natural colors. Throughout the 1860s and 1870s, he was often short of money and destroyed his own paintings rather than have them taken away by creditors (those to whom money is owed).

Monet and impressionism

As William Seitz wrote, “The landscapes Monet painted at Argenteuil between 1872 and 1877 are his best-known, most popular works, and it was during these years that impressionism most closely approached a group style.” Monet exhibited regularly in the impressionist group shows, the first of which took place in 1874. On that occasion his painting *Impression: Sunrise* (1872) inspired a newspaper critic to call all the artists “impressionists,” and the name stuck. Monet and the impressionists discovered that even the darkest shadows and the gloomiest days contain a wide variety of colors. However, Monet learned that he had to paint quickly and to use short brushstrokes loaded with individual colors.

During the 1880s the impressionists began to drift apart, although individual members continued to see one another and occasionally work together. Monet gradually gained critical and financial (relating to money) success during the late 1880s and the 1890s. This was due mainly to the efforts of Durand-Ruel, who sponsored one-man exhibitions of Monet’s work as early as 1883 and who, in 1886, also organized the first large-scale impressionist group show to take place in the United States.

Late work

Monet’s wife died in 1879; in 1892 he married Alice Hoschedé. During the 1890s he devoted his energy to paintings of haystacks (1891) and the facade (front) of Rouen Cathedral (1892–94). In these works Monet painted his subjects from the same physical position, allowing only the light and weather conditions to vary from picture to picture. By 1899 he began work on his famous paintings of the many water lilies in his gardens at Giverny, France. Monet’s late years were very difficult. His health declined rapidly, and by the 1920s he was almost blind.

In addition to Monet’s physical ailments, he struggled with the problems of his art. In 1920 he began work on twelve large canvases (each fourteen feet wide) of water lilies, which he planned to give to the state. To complete them, he fought against his own failing eyesight and the fact that he had no experience in creating large-scale mural art. In effect, the task required him to learn a new kind of painting at the age of eighty. The paintings are characterized by a broad, sweeping style and depend almost entirely on color. Monet worked on the water lily paintings until his death on December 5, 1926.

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THELONIOUS MONK

Born: October 10, 1917

Rocky Mount, North Carolina

Died: February 17, 1982

Englewood, New Jersey

African American musician, composer, and music director/conductor

Thelonious Monk was an important member of the jazz revolution that took place in the early 1940s. Monk's unique piano style and his talent as a composer made him a leader in the development of modern jazz.

Teaches self to read music

Thelonious Sphere Monk was born on October 10, 1917, in Rocky Mount, North Carolina. The first musical sounds he heard were from a player piano that his family owned. At the age of five or six he began picking out melodies on the piano and taught himself to read music by looking over his sister's shoulder as she took lessons. About a year later the family moved to the San Juan Hill section of New York City, near the Hudson River. His father became ill soon afterward and returned to the South, leaving

Thelonious's mother, Barbara, to raise him and his brother and sister. Though the family budget was tight, she managed to buy a baby grand Steinway piano, and when Thelonious turned eleven she began paying for his weekly piano lessons. Even at that young age it was clear that the instrument was part of his destiny.

As a boy Monk received training in the gospel music style, accompanying the Baptist choir in which his mother sang, and playing piano and organ during church services. At the same time he was becoming initiated into the world of jazz; near his home were several jazz clubs as well as the home of the great Harlem stride pianist James P. Johnson, from whom Monk picked up a great deal. By the age of thirteen he was playing in a local bar and grill with a trio. At the Apollo Theater's famous weekly amateur music contests, Monk won so many times that he was eventually banned from the event.

The New York scene

In 1939 Monk put his first group together. His first important gig came in the early 1940s when he was hired as house pianist at a club called Minton's. It was a time of dramatic innovation in jazz, when a faster, more complex style was developing. The musicians for this new music, called bebop, created it virtually on the spot. Yet while Monk was important in inspiring bebop, his own music had few ties to any particular movement. Monk was Monk—an original—and the proof was in his compositions.

As the 1940s progressed and bebop became more and more the rage, Monk's career declined. In 1951 he was arrested with



Thelonious Monk.

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pianist Bud Powell on an extremely questionable charge of narcotics (illegal drugs) possession. Not only was he confined for sixty days in prison, but the New York State Liquor Authority removed his cabaret card, without which he could not get hired for local club dates. For the next several years he survived only with the help of his good friend and patron the Baroness de Koenigswarter.

Eccentric behavior causes trouble

The strange behavior that Monk displayed in public sometimes got him into trouble. In 1958 he was arrested, unde-

servedly, for disturbing the peace, and his cabaret license was revoked a second time. Forced to take out-of-town gigs, he was separated from his two main sources of stability—New York City and his wife Nellie. His odd behavior intensified as a result. During one episode in 1959 in Boston, Massachusetts, state police picked him up and brought him to the Grafton State Hospital, where he was held for a week.

Toward the end of the 1950s Monk began to receive the prestige he had for so long deserved. His late 1950s recordings on the Riverside label had done so well that in 1962 he was offered a contract from Columbia. As a performer he was equally successful, commanding, in 1960, two thousand dollars for week-long engagements with his band and one thousand dollars for single performances. His December 1963 concert at New York's Philharmonic Hall, a big-band presentation of originals, was for him a personal landmark.

In the early 1970s Monk made a few solo and trio recordings for Black Lion in London and played a few concerts. Beginning in the mid-1970s he isolated himself from his friends and colleagues, spending his final years at the home of the Baroness Nica de Koenigswarter in Weehawken, New Jersey. After playing a concert at Carnegie Hall in March 1976, Monk was too weak physically to make further appearances. He died on February 17, 1982, in Englewood Hospital, after suffering a massive stroke. Along with Miles Davis (1926–1991) and John Coltrane (1926–1967), Monk is remembered as one of the most influential figures in modern jazz. The music Monk left behind remains as some of the most innovative and unique material in all of music, jazz or otherwise.

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MARILYN MONROE

Born: June 1, 1926

Los Angeles, California

Died: August 5, 1962

Los Angeles, California

American model and actress

Decades after Marilyn Monroe's death, the film actress and model has remained one of Hollywood's greatest sex symbols with her eye-catching style, champagne blond hair, and breathless manner of speaking.

Growing up Norma Jean

Norma Jean Baker, better known as Marilyn Monroe, experienced a disrupted, love-

less childhood that included two years at an orphanage. When Norma Jean, born on June 1, 1926, in Los Angeles, California, was seven years old, her mother, Gladys (Monroe) Baker Mortenson, was hospitalized after being diagnosed as a paranoid schizophrenic, a severe mental condition. Norma was left in a series of foster homes and the Los Angeles Orphans' Home Society. The constant move from one foster home to another resulted in Norma's "sketchy" educational background.

After Norma's sixteenth birthday, her foster parents had to move from California. To avoid an orphanage or a new foster home, Norma chose to get married. On June 19, 1942, Norma married James Dougherty, but the marriage would all but end when he joined the U.S. Merchant Marines in 1943. Though her difficult childhood and early failed marriage would make Norma Jean a strong and resilient woman, these experiences would also add to her insecurities and flaws—things that would ultimately shape her into a great tragic figure of the twentieth century.

Becoming Marilyn

During World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Japan, Italy, and Germany—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), Norma Jean worked at the Radio Plane Company in Van Nuys, California, but she was soon discovered by photographers. She enrolled in a three-month modeling course, and in 1946, aware of her considerable charm and the potential it had for a career in films, Norma obtained a divorce from Dougherty. She then headed for Hollywood, where Ben Lyon, head of casting at



Marilyn Monroe.
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Twentieth Century Fox, arranged a screen test. On August 26, 1946, she signed a one hundred twenty-five dollar a week, one-year contract with the studio. Ben Lyon was the one who suggested a new name for the young actress—Marilyn Monroe.

During Monroe's first year at Fox, she did not appear in any films, and her contract was not renewed. In the spring of 1948 Columbia Pictures hired her for a small part in *Ladies of the Chorus*. In 1950 John Huston (1906–1987) cast her in *Asphalt Jungle*, a tiny part which landed her a role in *All About Eve*. She was now given a seven-year contract with Twentieth Century Fox and appeared in *The*

Fireball, *Let's Make It Legal*, *Love Nest*, and *As Young as You Feel*.

In 1952, after an extensive publicity campaign, Monroe appeared in *Don't Bother to Knock*, *Full House*, *Clash by Night*, *We're Not Married*, *Niagara*, and *Monkey Business*. The magazine *Photoplay* termed her the “most promising actress,” and she was earning top dollars for Twentieth Century Fox.

Popularity and personal failures

On January 14, 1954, Monroe married Yankee baseball player Joe Di Maggio (1919–1999). But the pressures created by her billing as a screen sex symbol caused the marriage to fall apart, and the couple divorced on October 27, 1954.

Continually cast as the “dumb blond,” Monroe made *The Seven Year Itch* in 1954. Growing weary of the stereotyping (broad generalizations based on appearance), she broke her contract with Fox and moved to New York City. There she studied at the Actors Studio with Lee and Paula Strasberg. Gloria Steinem (1934–) recalls a conversation with Monroe during that time in which Monroe referred to her own opinion of her abilities compared to a group of notables at the Actors Studio. “I admire all these people so much. I'm just not good enough.”

In 1955 Monroe formed her own studio, Marilyn Monroe Productions, and renegotiated a contract with Twentieth Century Fox. She appeared in *Bus Stop* in 1956 and married playwright Arthur Miller (1915–) on July 1, 1956. Critics described Monroe in the film *The Prince and the Showgirl*, produced by her own company, as “a sparkling light comedienne.” Monroe won the Italian David di

Donatello award for “best foreign actress of 1958,” and in 1959 she appeared in *Some Like It Hot*. In 1961 she starred in *The Misfits*, for which her husband Miller wrote the screenplay.

End of a star

The couple was divorced on January 24, 1961, and later that year Monroe entered a New York psychiatric clinic. After her brief hospitalization there she returned to the Fox studio to work on a film, but her erratic (unsteady and irregular) behavior betrayed severe emotional disturbance, and the studio fired her in June 1962.

Marilyn Monroe was found dead in her Los Angeles bungalow on August 5, 1962, an empty bottle of sleeping pills by her side. The exact events surrounding her death are not totally known and have been the subject of many rumors and books over the years. Monroe’s image is one of the most lasting and widely seen of any star in the twentieth century—and today. As a subject of biographies, more than twenty books have been written about her short and tragic life.

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JOE MONTANA

Born: June 11, 1956

New Eagle, Pennsylvania

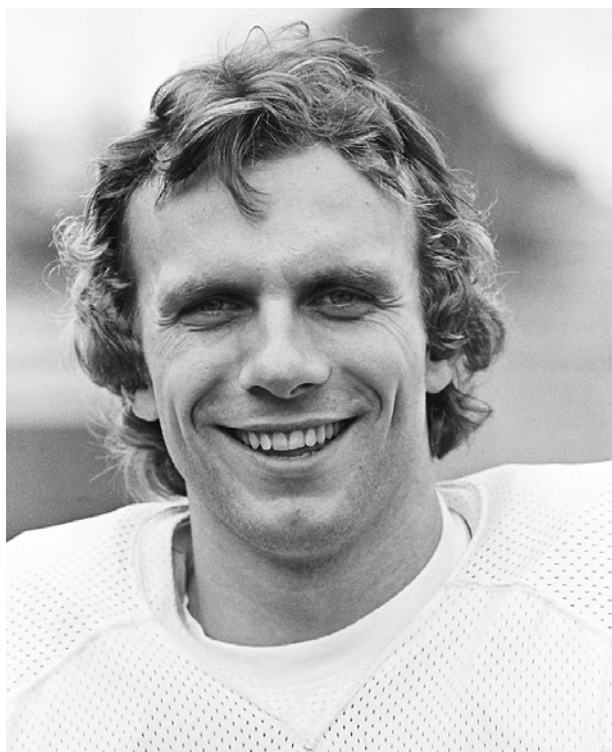
American football player

Joe Montana has earned a reputation as one of the top quarterbacks ever to play professional football, first rising to fame in the 1980s.

The quarterback’s beginnings

Joseph C. Montana Jr. was born on June 11, 1956, in New Eagle, Pennsylvania. His father, Joe Montana Sr., was a manager with a finance company, and his mother, Theresa, was a secretary with the same company. They lived in Monongahela, Pennsylvania. Joe loved playing sports. Every night as a young boy he would wait for his father to come home so that they could play catch with a football or a baseball, and practice throwing the balls through tire swings for accuracy. The Montanas also had a basketball hoop in their driveway, where Joe would often be seen playing a game with friends or practicing on his skills. He just loved to play sports.

Joe went to the local public schools, and graduated from Ringgold High School. There he was a B-student, a member of the choir, and



Joe Montana.

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served as vice president of his class during his senior year. He also was the starting quarterback for the football team from the middle of his junior year on. His abilities attracted the attention of major colleges around the country. In 1974 he was named in *Parade Magazine* as an All-American quarterback.

Seventh string

Joe Montana nearly accepted a basketball scholarship to North Carolina State University. But western Pennsylvania is known for its love of football, and such a tradition finally swayed Ringgold High's star quarterback to attend the University of Notre Dame

in Indiana on a football scholarship. It was a school known for excellence in both sports and academics. Joe knew that he would get a good education as well as a great chance to play football. As a homesick freshman, however, Montana may have had doubts about his decision-making skills when he realized that he was barely holding on as the Fighting Irish's seventh-string quarterback.

Early in his career Montana made the most of his occasional appearances in football games. As a sophomore he twice led Notre Dame back from behind in the fourth-quarter for unlikely wins, including a game against Air Force in which he came off the bench with just twelve minutes remaining to erase the Falcons' twenty-point lead. He inspired two more rallies as a junior and two more still as a senior. He soon was known as Notre Dame's "Comeback Kid." Still, Montana did not become Notre Dame's first-string quarterback until his senior year; and in his last game he again performed a comeback in the fourth quarter during an ice storm to defeat Houston in the last seven minutes. Yet, despite his amazing football instincts and his calmness under pressure, Montana was not a highly promoted prospect when he entered the 1979 National Football League (NFL) draft.

Life as a professional player

Eighty-one players were selected before the San Francisco 49ers drafted Montana late in the third round. New 49ers coach Bill Walsh ignored the negative scouting reports on his rookie quarterback, and envisioned Montana as the leader of his complex ball-control passing attack. Walsh's "system" depended on a quick quarterback with an accurate arm who could adjust quickly to the

other team's defensive strategies. By the 1981 season Montana and the 49ers had become a sophisticated and practically unstoppable offensive machine, but they met an old enemy in the National Football Conference championship game, the Dallas Cowboys. Montana again led a team from behind to win this game in the last seconds.

Super Bowl hero

San Francisco went on to win Super Bowl XVI over the Cincinnati Bengals, 26-21. Montana was named the game's Most Valuable Player (MVP). It was to become a familiar scenario during the decade. The 49ers would win four titles by 1990, including consecutive Super Bowls in 1989 and 1990, and Montana was awarded the MVP trophy in three of those championship games. Not only did Montana complete almost 70 percent of his passes in those four Super Bowl victories, but he also never threw an interception in 122 attempts. He drove the 49ers 92 yards in the last few moments of Super Bowl XXIII to beat Cincinnati again, 20-16. In Super Bowl XXIV Montana came back with an even more impressive performance, completing five touchdown passes in a 55-10 victory over the Denver Broncos. When he retired in 1995, Montana held NFL playoff records for completions, yards, and touchdowns, as well as single-season (1989) and career records for passing efficiency.

Life after football

Joe Montana was inducted into the Pro Football Hall of Fame on July 29, 2000. He is now involved in sports of a different kind. He raises horses with his family in Northern California. He and his children compete as riders of

the horses they raise. But no matter where he goes, Joe Montana will always be remembered as one of professional football's greatest players.

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MONTESQUIEU

Born: January 18, 1689

Bordeaux, France

Died: February 10, 1755

Paris, France

French philosopher and satirist

The French satirist (writer using sarcasm to communicate his message) and political and social philosopher Montesquieu was the first of the great French scholars associated with the Enlightenment (a philosophical movement in the eighteenth century that rejected traditional social and religious ideas by placing reason as the most important ideal).

Early life

Charles Louis de Secondat, Baron de Montesquieu was born on January 18, 1689, at the castle of La Brède near Bordeaux. His father, Jacques de Secondat, was a soldier



Montesquieu.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

with a long noble ancestry, and his mother, Marie Françoise de Pesnel, who died when Charles Louis was seven, was an heiress (a woman with a large monetary inheritance) who eventually brought the barony (title of baron) of La Brède to the Secondat family. As was customary the young Montesquieu spent the early years of his life among the peasants (poor working class) in the village of La Brède. The influence of this period remained with Charles Louis, showing itself in his deep attachment to the soil. Montesquieu was also born into a climate of discontent in France. King Louis XIV's (1638–1715) long reign was uncomfortable for the citizens of France. His

unsuccessful wars and attempts to dictate religion and culture had a bad effect on France. Knowledge of this situation helps to explain some of Montesquieu's curiosity and his interest in societal rules and laws.

In 1700 Montesquieu was sent to the Oratorian Collège de Juilly, at Meaux, where he received a modern education. Returning to Bordeaux in 1705 to study law, he was admitted to practice before the Bordeaux Parlement (parliament) in 1708. The next five years were spent in Paris, France, continuing his studies. During this period he developed an intense dislike for the style of life in the capital, which he later expressed in his *Persian Letters*.

In 1715 Montesquieu married Jeanne de Lartigue, a Protestant (a member of the church that had left the rule of Roman Catholicism), who brought him a large dowry (sum of money given in marriage). He was also elected to the Academy of Bordeaux. The following year, on the death of his uncle Jean Baptiste, he inherited the barony of Montesquieu and the presidency of the Bordeaux Parlement.

Scholarly and literary career

Montesquieu had no great enthusiasm for law as a profession. He was much more interested in the spirit that lay behind law. It is from this interest that his greatest work, *The Spirit of the Laws*, developed. To free himself in order to continue his scholarly interests, he sold his office as president of the Bordeaux Parlement in 1721. With his newly freed time he wrote the *Persian Letters*.

The *Persian Letters* was a fierce and bitingly critical view of European civilization

and manners. The work takes the form of letters that three Persians (people from what is now Iran) traveling in Europe send to families and friends at home. Their letters are notes on what they see in the West. Montesquieu gave his travelers the foreign, commonsense understanding necessary to effectively criticize European (French) customs and institutions. Yet he also gave his Persians the weaknesses necessary to make his readers recognize in them their own weaknesses. All sides of European life were criticized. The message is that society lasts only on the basis of virtue and justice, which is rooted in the need of human cooperation and acceptance.

Although the *Letters* was published without his name, it was quickly recognized as the work of Montesquieu and won him the approval of the public and the displeasure of the governor, Cardinal André Fleury, who held up Montesquieu's introduction into the French Academy until 1728.

The Spirit of the Laws

Montesquieu brought his search for the general laws active in society and history to its completion in his greatest work. Published in 1748, *The Spirit of the Laws* was an investigation of the environmental and social relationships that lie behind the laws of civilized society. Combining the traditions of customary law with those of the modern theories of natural law, Montesquieu redefined law as "the necessary relationships that derive [come] from the nature of things." Laws "must be adapted to each peoples."

The Spirit of the Laws helped to lay the basis of the eighteenth-century movement for constitutionalism (government run by established law), which ended in the Revolution of

1789 (1789–93; rise and revolt of the middle class against the failures of King Louis XVI and his royals, many of whom were killed by the guillotine, or chopping block). In this sense Montesquieu's most basic belief may be viewed as an attempt to state the necessity of law review. *The Spirit of the Laws* was immediately celebrated as one of the great works of French literature.

Following the completion of his work, Montesquieu, who was going blind, went into semiretirement at La Brède. He died on February 10, 1755, during a trip to Paris.

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MARIA MONTESSORI

Born: August 31, 1870

Chiaravalle, Italy

Died: May 6, 1952

Noordwijk, Netherlands

Italian physician and educator



Maria Montessori.

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The Italian educator and physician Maria Montessori was the first Italian woman to receive a medical degree. She was the originator of the Montessori method of education for children.

Early life

On August 31, 1870, Maria Montessori was born in Chiaravalle, Italy. Her father, Alessandro Montessori, a retired army officer, was very traditional. Her mother, Renilde Stoppani Montessori, was an intelligent, modern-thinking woman from a wealthy family. Maria's mother taught her daughter how to be compassionate by giving

her the task of knitting for the poor every day. Maria herself chose to scrub a portion of the tile floor every day. Much later, as a teacher, Montessori included such work in her studies for children, calling them "exercises of practical life."

As an elementary school student Montessori blossomed. She was average in intelligence, but good at exams, and she led her classmates in many games. She found the classroom set-up and repetitions very boring, yet she learned. When it came time to leave elementary school she had to ask her parents if she could continue. Women in her time were not encouraged to get more than an elementary school education.

Montessori's father discouraged her interest in a professional career. With the encouragement and support of her mother, however, she prepared herself for her later career. When she was twelve, the family moved to Rome, Italy, to take advantage of the better educational facilities. An interest in engineering technology and mathematics led her to enroll in classes at a technical institute at the age of fourteen. Later an interest in biology led to her decision to study medicine. This decision required some courage, because of society's views on women's education.

Professional life

In 1894 Montessori became the first woman to receive a medical degree in Italy. Her experiences in the pursuit of this degree reinforced her already well-developed feminist (in support of equality of the sexes) ideas. Throughout her life she was a frequent participant in international feminist events.

Montessori's first appointment was as an assistant doctor in the psychiatric clinic of the University of Rome, where she had her first contact with learning disabled children. She became convinced that the problem of handling these children was as much one of teaching method as of medical treatment. In 1898 she was appointed director of the State Orthophrenic School in Rome, whose function was to care for the "hopelessly deficient" and "idiot" children of the city. She enjoyed tremendous success in teaching the children herself, while refining and applying her unique methods. In 1901 Montessori left the school to pursue further studies and research.

In 1906 the Italian government put Montessori in charge of a state-supported school in the San Lorenzo quarter of Rome, which had sixty children, aged three to six, from poverty-stricken families. By this time her early successes with learning disabled children suggested to her the idea of trying the same educational methods with normal children. She used what she termed a "prepared environment" to provide an atmosphere for learning—that is, small chairs and tables instead of rows of desks. The basic features of the method are development of the child's natural curiosity through responsible and individual freedom of behavior, improvement of the sharpness of the five senses (hearing, seeing, tasting, touching, smelling) through training, and development of body coordination through games and exercise. The function of the teacher is to provide educational material, such as counting beads or geometric puzzles, and act as an adviser and guide, staying as much as possible in the background.

The Montessori method

Montessori's view of the nature of the child, on which the Montessori method is based, is that children go through a series of "sensitive periods" with "creative moments," when they show spur-of-the-moment interest in learning. It is then that the children have the greatest ability to learn, and these periods should be utilized to the fullest so that the children learn as much as possible. They should not be held back by forced, rigid curricula (plans of study) or classes. Work, she believed, is its own reward to the child, and there is no necessity for other rewards. Self-discipline (controlling oneself) emerges out of the freedom of the learning environment.

Montessori's method was basically at odds with other major twentieth-century trends. Thus it was used only by a relatively few private schools. Since the early 1950s, however, her system has enjoyed a revival and a renewed interest in learning disabled children. Her works have been translated into at least twenty languages, and training schools for Montessori teachers have been established in several nations.

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THOMAS MORE

Born: February 6, 1478

London, England

Died: July 6, 1535

London, England

English statesman and humanist

The life of the English humanist (one who studies human nature, interests, and values) and statesman (political leader) Sir Thomas More represents the political and spiritual disorder of the Reformation (the time of religious change in the sixteenth century that moved away from Roman Catholic tradition toward Protestantism). The author of *Utopia*, he was beheaded for being against the religious policy of Henry VIII (1491–1547).

Early life

Thomas More was born in London on February 6, 1478, to John and Agnes More, whose families were connected with the city's legal community. His father, John More, was the butler at the lawyer's club, Lincoln's Inn, as his father was before him. John very much wanted to be a lawyer himself. That opportunity came when he married Agnes Granger, the wealthy daughter of a local merchant. In marriage she shared some of that wealth with John. He was well-liked at Lincoln's Inn and was voted to be a member and then was admitted to the bar (a group of practicing lawyers). Agnes and John had four other children besides Thomas but three died very young.

Thomas' education began at a prominent London school, St. Anthony's. In 1490 Thomas entered the household of Archbishop John Morton, Henry VII's closest adviser. His

mother and father's connections made this possible. Service to Morton brought experience of the world. In 1492 More transferred to Oxford, where he first started Greek studies. Two years later he returned to London, where legal and political careers blossomed. By 1498 More had gained membership in Lincoln's Inn.

Christian humanism

More, while pursuing his legal career and entering Parliament in 1504, was drawn to the Christian humanist circle. This philosophy (the study of knowledge) coupled the study of Greek with the study of the gospel in seeking a more direct message. He spent his mid-twenties in close touch with London's strict Carthusian monks and almost became one. But More then decided that he could fulfill a Christian call to ministry while remaining a layman (non-clergy).

More first married Jane Colt, who bore three sons and a daughter before dying in 1511. He then married Alice Middleton. His legal career grew and led to an appointment as London's undersheriff in 1511. This meant additional work and income as public lawyer at Henry VIII's court and as court representative with foreign merchants.

More's first official trip abroad, at an embassy at Antwerp in 1515, gave him leisure time in which he began his greatest work, *Utopia*. Modeled after Plato's (c. 427–c. 347 B.C.E.) *Republic* and finished and published in 1516, it describes an imaginary land, free of the prideful greed and violence of the English scenes that More had witnessed.

Service under Henry VIII

In *Utopia* More discusses the difficulties of counseling (as a lawyer) princes. This aware-

ness kept him from accepting frequent invitations to serve Henry VIII, whose policies were often quite opposite to the humanist's philosophy. He finally accepted Henry's fee late in 1517 and had a solid career in diplomacy (the conduct in dealing with other nations), legal service, and finance. In 1529 he was chosen as the successor to Cardinal Wolsey as chancellor (secretary of the king) of England.

More's early doubts, however, proved justified. Under Wolsey's direction More, as Speaker of the House of Commons in 1523, promoted a war tax so unpopular that its collection was discontinued.

Wolsey's inability to obtain the annulment (to make invalid) of Henry's marriage to Catherine of Aragon (1485–1536) had raised More to highest office, and had placed him in the increasingly distressing role of Henry's chief agent in the strategies that began to sever England from Rome. More was deeply engaged in writings against Lutherans, defending the fundamental (essential) rules of the Roman Catholic Church, whose serious defects he knew. More cannot justly be held responsible for the increased number of Protestants killed during his last months in office, but this was the gloomiest phase of his career. He continued writing until a year after his resignation from office, given on May 16, 1532, which was caused by illness and distress over England's separation from the Catholic Church.

Break with the king

More recognized the dangers that his Catholic writings might bring in the upside-down world of Henry's break with Rome. So he tried to avoid political controversy (open to dispute). But Henry pressed him for a public acknowledgment of the country's break from Rome in 1534. More refused to take the



Thomas More.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

accompanying oath that denied the pope's power in England.

More's last dramatic year—from the first summons for questioning on April 12, 1534, through imprisonment, trial for treason (the act of betraying one's country), defiance of his lying accusers, and finally execution (a death sentence carried out legally) on July 6, 1535—should not be allowed to overshadow his entire life's experience. Its significance extends beyond the realm of English history. For many of Europe's most critical years, More worked to revitalize the Christian world. He attacked those who most clearly threatened its unity; once convinced that

Henry VIII was among their number, More withdrew his service and resisted to his death the effort to remove his loyalty.

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JIM MORRISON

Born: December 8, 1943

Melbourne, Florida

Died: July 3, 1971

Paris, France

American singer and songwriter

Lead singer for the rock group the Doors, Jim Morrison was the poster-boy for the mind-bending, outlandish lifestyle of the 1960s in his brief but brilliant career.

First creative outlet in film

James Douglas Morrison was born in Melbourne, Florida, on December 8, 1943. His father, a career Navy officer, was transferred from base to base during his son's

childhood, but, by his Jim's early teens, the family had settled in Alexandria, Virginia. After finishing high school in Alexandria, Morrison took several classes at St. Petersburg Junior College and Florida State University before pulling up roots in 1964 and heading for the West Coast. By 1966 the twenty-two-year-old Morrison was enrolled in film classes at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), but a friendship with fellow student Ray Manzarek would sideline any plans he had of becoming a filmmaker.

While the two young men had known each other only casually as fellow students, they ran into each other one day by accident, on a Venice, California, beach. Manzarek, an organist, along with Morrison, guitarist Robbie Krieger, and drummer John Densmore, decided to form their own rock band to put their songs to music. The young men decided to call their group the Doors, a name inspired by a quote from nineteenth-century English poet William Blake (1757–1827): "If the doors of perception were cleansed every thing would appear as it is, infinite." As Morrison was fond of saying, "there are things known and things unknown and in between are the Doors."

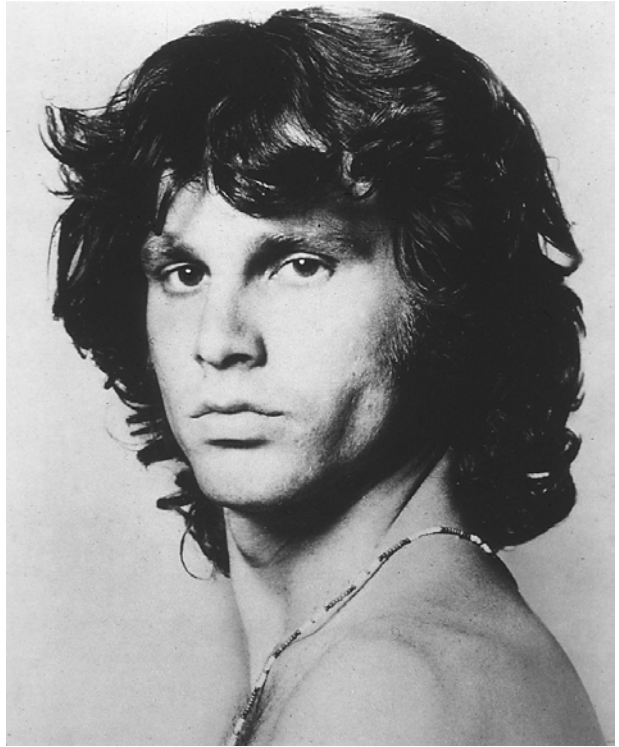
A long-term gig at the Whiskey-a-Go-Go on Hollywood's Sunset Strip allowed the Doors to develop their stage presence, and it eventually drew the attention of talent scouts searching for new recording acts. Not the least of the group's attractions was Morrison, who sang in a husky baritone, wore skin-tight pants, and went even further than Elvis Presley had in incorporating sexually suggestive movements into his onstage performances. With lyrics like "Come on baby, light my fire," Morrison drove young women wild.

The rise (and fall) of the Lizard King

After the release of their first album, *The Doors*, the group went back into the studio and cut *Strange Days*, both of which came out in 1967. Other albums would include *Waiting for the Sun* (1968), *The Soft Parade* (1969), *Morrison Hotel* (1970), *Absolutely Live* (1970), and *L.A. Woman* (1971). Morrison, interested in Native American lore and the images of the American deserts, dubbed himself the “Lizard King” and wrote several songs, including “Celebration of the Lizard,” in reference to his reptilian alter ego (another aspect of one’s personality).

Caught up in a wave of popularity, the young band found itself carried into a new world, where drugs, alcohol, and sex played a major role. Morrison, whose status as a celebrity had begun almost overnight, found it difficult to handle the change: his growing dependence on alcohol would dim his talent in the years that followed, and the superstar status made him believe he was immune to normal authority.

On March 1, 1969, Morrison and the Doors were booked for a concert at Dinner Key Auditorium, in Coconut Grove, in Morrison’s home state of Florida. During his performance before thirteen thousand screaming fans, Morrison exposed himself briefly to the audience. Nothing was done until pressure from disgusted Miami-area residents forced local police to issue a warrant for Morrison’s arrest. The singer, who had been vacationing out of the country, turned himself in to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and returned to Miami, where he went on trial on August 12, 1970. Found guilty of a misdemeanor (a minor crime) for profanity (vulgar language or behavior) and drunkenness, he



Jim Morrison.

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was sentenced to six months hard labor, although the sentence was stayed (postponed) while his attorney appealed the conviction. Morrison would not live to see the outcome of that appeal.

An early end

After the trial in Miami, Morrison’s life grew more chaotic, his relationships with band members more strained. Searching to recover a sense of himself, he went back to the poetry that he had loved while a college student. In 1970 he published his first book of verse, *The Lords [and] The New Creatures*, which had been privately printed the year before.

On July 3, 1971, Morrison's girlfriend found him dead in his bathtub. The cause of death was determined to be a heart attack, although an autopsy was never performed. He was buried at the Pere-Lachaise Cemetery in Paris, France. His death was kept secret until after the funeral to eliminate the crowds of saddened fans that would likely have attended. Morrison's grave remains one of the most visited sites in all of Paris.

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TONI MORRISON

Born: February 18, 1931

Lorain, Ohio

African American writer

Toni Morrison is the first African American woman to win the Nobel Prize for Literature. She is best known for her novels focusing on intimate relationships, especially between men and women. These stories are set against the backdrop of African American culture.

Birth and family history

Toni Morrison was born Chloe Anthony Wofford in Lorain, Ohio, on February 18, 1931. She was the second of four children born to Ramah and George Wofford. Her mother's parents, Ardelia and John Solomon Willis, had left Greenville, Alabama, around 1910 after they lost their farm because of debts that they could not repay. Morrison's father's family left Georgia and moved north to escape sharecropping (a system of farming in which a farmer works on someone else's land and pays the owner a share of the crop) and violence against African Americans in the South. Both families settled in the steel-mill town of Lorain on Lake Erie. Morrison grew up during the Great Depression in the 1930s, a time of severe economic hardship. Her father supported the family by working three jobs for seventeen years.

Folklore, music, and history

Morrison's childhood was filled with African American folklore, music, rituals, and myths. Her family was, as Morrison says, "intimate with the supernatural" and frequently used visions and signs to predict the future. Storytelling was an important part of life in the Wofford family and both the children and the adults would share stories with one another. Morrison sees her writing functioning much like storytelling did in the past. It reminds

people about their heritage and shows them their place in the community. She has said that she uses her childhood memories to help her start writing. Her real-life world, therefore, is often included in her novels.

Once Morrison learned how to read, it became one of the things in life that she loved spending time doing. When she was in high school, she began to read the works of great authors such as Jane Austen (1775–1817), Leo Tolstoy (1828–1910), and the nineteenth-century French writer Gustave Flaubert (1821–1880). Morrison was impressed by the specific way these writers portrayed the things that they were familiar with. Their talents motivated her to write in such a way about the things she was most familiar with, particularly her African American culture.

Attends university and becomes a teacher

In 1949 Morrison went to Howard University in Washington, D.C., to study English. She changed her name to Toni because people at Howard had trouble pronouncing the name Chloe. While at Howard she was a member of the Howard University Players, a theater company that presented plays about the lives of African American people. Morrison received her bachelor of arts degree in English from Howard in 1953. After she received her master's degree in English from Cornell University in Ithaca, New York, in 1955, she taught for two years at Texas Southern University in Houston. Then she returned to Howard University to teach.

Marriage, family, and a career as an editor

While at Howard, Toni met Harold Morrison, a young architect from Jamaica who



Toni Morrison.

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also taught at the university. The couple married in 1958 and had two sons, Harold (also known as Ford) and Slade, before divorcing in 1964. Then Morrison went to Syracuse, New York, and began working as an editor for a Random House company. She had two small children and free time in the evenings. This environment helped her turn her attention to writing novels.

In 1968 Morrison moved to New York City, where she continued working as an editor for Random House. She eventually became a senior editor and was the only African American woman to have that job in the company. While there she helped to pub-

lish books by African American writers, including Toni Cade Bambara (1939–1995), Gayl Jones (1949–), and June Jordan (1936–). She also taught part-time, lectured across the country, and wrote many novels.

Morrison's novels

Morrison began writing her first novel, *The Bluest Eye* (1970), while she was in a writers' group at Howard University. The story is about an African American girl who wishes that her eyes were blue and fit a different image of beauty. Thirty years later the book still speaks to a universal audience and was chosen to be an Oprah Winfrey Book Club selection. *Sula* (1974), Morrison's second novel, was nominated for a National Book Award. Her third book, *Song of Solomon* (1977), won a National Book Critics Circle Award in 1977 and an American Academy of Arts and Letters Award. It was also chosen as the second novel by an African American to be a Book-of-the-Month selection. *Tar Baby* was published in 1981. *Beloved* (1987) won the Pulitzer Prize in 1988. *Jazz* was published in 1992 and *Paradise* followed in 1997. Meanwhile, Morrison worked as writer-in-residence at the State University of New York, first at Stony Brook and later at Albany, before moving on to Princeton University in New Jersey.

Morrison's novels are carefully written to produce poetic phrases and strong emotional responses from her readers. Her characters try to understand the truth about the world they live in. The subjects she writes about include good and evil, love and hate, beauty and ugliness, friendship, and death.

Morrison's masterpiece

Beloved, a story about life after slavery, is considered Morrison's masterpiece. In 1993, when she won the Nobel Prize for Literature for the body of her work, the Nobel Committee cited *Beloved* as Morrison's outstanding work. In 1996 she received a Medal for Distinguished Contribution to American Letters from the National Book Foundation.

In 1999 Morrison's first children's book, *The Big Box*, was published. She worked on the book together with her son Slade. The story is a dark look at childhood in America that pushes children and parents to take a new look at the rules and values that make up their lives. The book shows the ways in which well-meaning adults sometimes block children's independence and creativity.

Honored by the president

In 2001 Toni Morrison was given a National Arts and Humanities Award by President Bill Clinton in Washington, D.C. The president gave a speech during the award ceremony and said that Morrison had "entered America's heart."

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SAMUEL F. B. MORSE

Born: April 27, 1791

Charlestown, Massachusetts

Died: April 2, 1872

New York, New York

American inventor and artist

Samuel F. B. Morse, American artist and inventor, designed and developed the first successful electromagnetic (magnetism caused by electricity) telegraph system.

Early life

Samuel Finley Breese Morse was born in Charlestown, Massachusetts, on April 27, 1791. He was the first son of Jedidiah Morse, a clergyman, and Elizabeth Breese, of New Jersey. "Finley," as his parents called him, was the son quickest to change moods while his other two brothers, Sidney and Richard, were less temperamental. His brothers helped him out many times in his adult years. The Morses' commitment to education had Samuel in Phillips Academy by the age of seven. Though not a star student, his drawing skills were good. Both his teachers' and his parents' encouragement led to Samuel's success with miniature portraits on ivory. Samuel graduated from Yale College in 1810. He wished to pursue a career in art, but his father was opposed to this. Samuel took a job as a clerk in a Charlestown bookstore. During this time he continued to paint. His father reversed his decision and in 1811 allowed Morse to travel to England to pursue art. During this time, Morse worked at the Royal Academy

with the respected American artist Benjamin West (1738–1820).

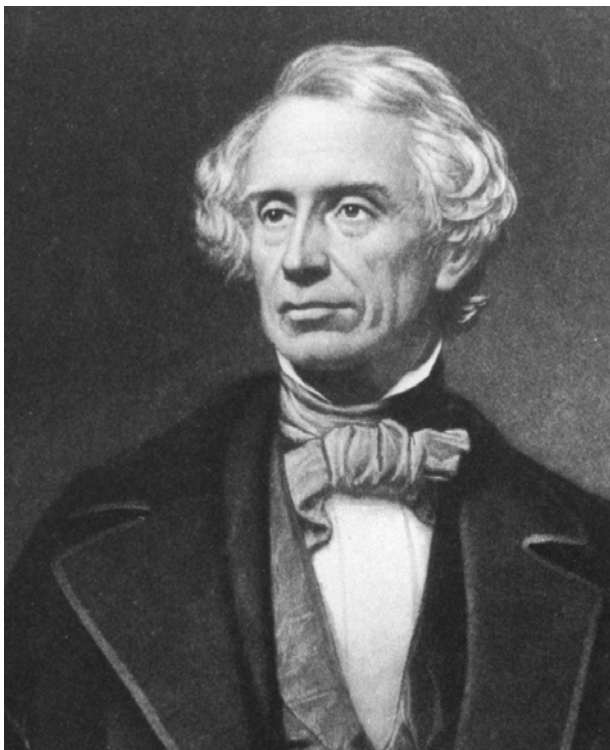
Artist at work

In 1815 Morse returned to America and set up a studio in Boston, Massachusetts. He soon discovered that his large canvases attracted attention but not sales. In those days Americans looked to painters primarily for portraits, and Morse found that even these sales were difficult to get. He traveled extensively in search of work, finally settling in New York City in 1823. Perhaps his two best-known canvases are his portraits of the Marquis de Lafayette (1757–1834; a French general who served with George Washington [1732–1799] during the American Revolution), which he painted in Washington, D.C., in 1825.

In 1826 Morse helped found, and became the first president of, the National Academy of Design, an organization that was intended to help secure sales for artists and to raise the taste of the public. The previous year Morse's wife had died; in 1826 his father died. The death of his mother in 1828 dealt another severe blow, and the following year Morse left for Europe to recover.

Electromagnetism

In October 1832 Morse returned to the United States. On the voyage he met Charles Thomas Jackson, an eccentric doctor and inventor, with whom he discussed electromagnetism. Jackson assured Morse that an electric impulse could be carried along even a very long wire. Morse later recalled that he reacted to this news with the thought that "if this be so, and the presence of electricity can be made visible in any desired part of the cir-



Samuel F. B. Morse.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

cuit, I see no reason why intelligence might not be instantaneously transmitted by electricity to any distance." He immediately made some sketches of a device to accomplish this purpose.

Even as an art professor at the University of the City of New York, the telegraph was never far from Morse's mind. He had long been interested in gadgetry and had even taken out a patent (document protecting the owner of an invention from having it stolen). He had also attended public lectures on electricity. His shipboard sketches of 1832 had clearly laid out the three major parts of the

telegraph: a sender, which opened and closed an electric circuit; a receiver, which used an electromagnet to record the signal; and a code, which translated the signal into letters and numbers. By January 1836 he had a working model of the device that he showed to a friend, who advised him of recent developments in the field of electromagnetism—especially the work of the American physicist (scientist of matter and energy) Joseph Henry (1797–1878). As a result, Morse was able to greatly improve the efficiency of his device.

Invention trial

In September 1837 Morse formed a partnership with Alfred Vail, who contributed both money and mechanical skill. They applied for a patent. The American patent remained in doubt until 1843, when Congress approved thirty thousand dollars to finance the building of an experimental telegraph line between the national capital and Baltimore, Maryland. It was over this line, on May 24, 1844, that Morse tapped out his famous message, "What hath God wrought [made]!"

Morse was willing to sell all of his rights to the invention to the federal government for one hundred thousand dollars, but a combination of a lack of congressional interest and the presence of private greed frustrated the plan. Instead he turned his business affairs over to Amos Kendall. Morse then settled down to a life of wealth and fame. He was generous in his charitable gifts and was one of the founders of Vassar College in 1861. His last years were spoiled, however, by questions as to how much he had been helped by others, especially Joseph Henry.

Morse died in New York City on April 2, 1872.

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MOSES

Born: c. 1392 B.C.E.

Egypt

Died: c. 1272 B.C.E.

Moab, Syria

Egyptian prophet

The Old Testament prophet Moses was chosen to lead Israel out of Egyptian slavery. He created Israel's nationhood and delivered the Ten Commandments.

Childhood years

Moses was the son of Amram and Yochebed of the tribe of Levi. Miriam and Aaron were his brother and sister. He was born in Egypt during the period in which the Israelites (Hebrews) had become a threat to the Egyptians simply because of their large population. The Pharaoh had ordered that all newborn male Hebrew children be cast into the Nile to drown. Amram and Yochebed took their newborn son and placed him in a waterproof basket and hid him in the tall

grasses of the Nile. Meanwhile, his sister Miriam hid and watched over the baby from a distance. A group of women and servants were bathing nearby. The Pharaoh's daughter, hearing the baby cry, found and rescued him. She named him "Moses," meaning "drawn from the water." Her desire for a son fulfilled, she made certain that he had the best of everything, including education.

Moses was brought up in the splendor of the Egyptian court as the Pharaoh's daughter's adopted son. Grown to manhood, he was aware of his Hebraic roots and shared a deep compassion for his confined kinsmen. He became furious while witnessing an Egyptian master brutally beating a Hebrew slave, and he impulsively killed the Egyptian. Fearing the Pharaoh's punishment, he fled into the desert of Midian, becoming a shepherd for Jethro, a Midianite priest whose daughter Zipporah he later married. While tending the flocks on Horeb Mountain in the wilderness, he saw a bush burning yet not turning to ash. He heard a voice from within the bush telling him that he had been chosen to serve as one to lead the children of Israel out of Egypt. He was also told to declare the unity of God to his people. At that time most Israelites were worshipping many gods. Moses was to tell them that there was only one God.

The tremendous responsibility of Moses's task, his shyness, and his own feeling of unworthiness brought forth a hesitancy and lack of confidence. The Divine answer was "Who made your tongue?" He was then assured that Aaron, his more talkative brother, would serve as his spokesman both to the children of Israel and to the Pharaoh. The promised destination for the Israelites' journey was a "land rich with milk and honey."



Moses.

Reproduced by permission of the Corbis Corporation.

Moses returned to Egypt and persuaded the Hebrews to organize for a quick trip from their Egyptian slave drivers. With Aaron, Moses informed the Pharaoh that the God of the Hebrews demanded that Pharaoh free God's people. The Pharaoh refused to obey, bringing upon himself and his people nine terrible plagues (diseases that spread rapidly and can cause death) that Moses produced upon Egypt by using the miraculous staff he had received from God as a sign of his authority. The Egyptians suffered under the plagues of water turned into blood, frogs, gnats, flies, disease to their cattle, boils, hail, locusts, and darkness. Each plague was

severe to the Egyptians but left the Israelites untouched. The tenth plague is now the Hebrew story of Passover. God sent the Angel of Death to kill the firstborn sons of the Egyptians—a proof of His immense strength and power. The Israelites protected their households by putting lamb's blood on their doorway, so that the Angel of Death would know to pass over their homes. This last plague broke the Pharaoh's resistance and moved him to grant the Hebrews permission to leave immediately. Moses thus found himself the leader of an undisciplined collection of slaves, Hebrew as well as non-Hebrew, escaping from Egyptian territory toward freedom.

Exodus

Moses' immediate goal was Mt. Horeb, called Mt. Sinai, where God had first revealed Himself to Moses. The Hebrews came to the sacred mountain encouraged by the power they sensed in Moses. Summoned by God, Moses ascended the mountain and received the tablets of stone while the children of Israel heard the thundering forth of the Ten Commandments. Inspired, the people agreed to the conditions of the Covenant (agreement made between people and God).

Through forty years in the wilderness of Sinai, overcoming many obstacles, Moses led the horde of former slaves, shaping them into a nation. Many miracles happened along the way. When the Israelites stopped in front of the Red Sea with the Egyptian soldiers at their heels, it was Moses' raised staff that parted the Red Sea so that they could cross. Once they had safely crossed, the sea crashed down, drowning many of their pursuers. When food supplies ran out, God sent down what was called "manna" (spiritual food) everyday for the nourishment of the

Israelites. Moses had to hear the Israelites complain about the food, the climate, and the slowness of their progress. Moses even had to hear the Israelites claim that Egypt had been better than this wilderness trip. When the people were in need of water, God told Moses to speak to a rock and water would spring from it. Moses' character was apparently worn down because, instead of following directions, he struck the rock with his staff. That was to have lasting impact on Moses's final days.

Covenant

With the help of his brother Aaron, Moses was able to hold together his ragtag band of ex-slaves for forty years. Only a man with tremendous will, patience, compassion, humility, and great faith could have forged the bickering and scheming groups who constantly challenged his wisdom and authority into a nation. Throughout the forty years Moses was in constant communication with his Lord, the God of Israel. This God added to the Ten Commandments through Moses by giving a code of law regulating the social and religious lives of the people. This collection of instructions, read to and confirmed by the people, was called the *Book of the Covenant*. These were protected in a specially designed box called the Ark of the Covenant. All of the specific details were spoken through Moses by the God of the Israelites.

Under Moses's leadership, most of the land east of the Jordan was conquered and given to the tribes of Reuben and Gad and to half of the tribe of Menashe. Moses, however, was not permitted to lead the children of Israel into Canaan, the Promised Land, because he had been disobedient to God during the period of wandering in the desert. His regular meetings with God had fulfilled him in ways that even his fellow

Israelites could detect. His face was always radiant when he exited any interview with his Almighty. Moses, 120 years old, died in the land of Moab and was buried opposite Bet Peor.

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GRANDMA MOSES

Born: September 7, 1860

Greenwich, New York

Died: December 13, 1961

Eagle Bridge, New York

American painter

Grandma Moses was one of America's best-known primitive painters (artists who did not receive a formal art education).

Anna Mary's youth

Anna Mary Robertson was born in Greenwich, New York, on September 7, 1860,



Grandma Moses.

the third of ten children born to Russell King Robertson, a farmer, and Margaret Shannahan. She had a happy childhood and worked hard on their family farm. Her father enjoyed seeing the children's drawings and would buy them large sheets of blank newspaper upon which they could draw. The young Anna Mary loved to draw happy, colorful scenes. She only attended school in the summer due to the cold and her lack of warm clothing. At twelve she began earning her living as a hired girl at homes near the family farm.

In 1887 Anna Mary married a farm worker, Thomas S. Moses, and the couple settled on a farm in Virginia. They had ten chil-

dren, five of whom died at birth. In 1907 the family moved to Eagle Bridge, New York, where Grandma Moses spent the rest of her life.

First paintings

It was on this farm in Eagle Ridge that Anna Mary painted her first painting. She was wallpapering her parlor and ran out of paper. To finish the room she put up white paper and painted a scene. It is known as the *Fireboard*, and it hangs today in the Bennington Museum in Bennington, Vermont. Her husband died in 1927, and her son and daughter-in-law took over the farm. As she aged and found farm work too difficult, Grandma Moses took up embroidering pictures in yarn to fill her spare time. At the age of seventy-six, because of arthritis, she gave up embroidery and began to paint. Her early work was usually based on scenes she found in illustrated books and on Currier and Ives prints (prints made during the 1800s, showing American lives, historical events, and celebrities).

Recognition

In 1938 Grandma Moses's paintings were discovered by an art collector and engineer, Louis Caldor. He saw a few of her paintings displayed in the window of a drug store in Hoosick Falls, New York, while on vacation. He purchased these, and the next day he bought all the paintings Grandma Moses had at her farm. In October of 1939, three of these paintings were exhibited at the "Contemporary Unknown Painters" show at New York's Museum of Modern Art. Her first one-woman show was held in New York City in 1940 and immediately she became famous. Her second one-woman show, also in New

York City, came two years later. By 1943 there was an overwhelming demand for her pictures, partially because her homespun, country scenes brought about wonderful feelings and memories for many people.

Most of Grandma Moses's paintings were done on pieces of strong cardboard, 24 by 30 inches or less. She regularly portrayed happy scenes of rural home life, sometimes picturing herself as a child. She also painted a number of historical pictures, usually about her ancestors, one of whom built the first wagon to run on the Cambridge Pike. In some works figures are dressed in eighteenth-century costumes, as people might have dressed in the country. Certain color schemes correspond to the various seasons: white for winter, light green for spring, deep green for summer, and brown for autumn. Among her most popular paintings are *The Old Oaken Bucket*, *Over the River to Grandma's House*, *Sugaring Off*, and *Catching the Turkey*.

Grandma Moses worked from memory, portraying a way of life she knew from experience. The people in her paintings are actively engaged in farm tasks, and, although separated, are part of the established order of seasonal patterns. In most paintings the landscape is shown as a large, scenic view and would be completed before the tiny figures were put in. Grandma Moses died on December 13, 1961.

Primitive art

Technically the work of primitive painters is distinguished by a conceptual (a general and broad view) rather than a visual or realistic and accurate approach to painting. This involves an innocent picture using a linear format (flat, one dimensional space) that portrays scenes and people with an absence of

weather in the skies and shadows around shapes. Some of the strengths of primitive painting lie in the feeling for pattern that is painted into the picture and the charm of the mood that is projected from the work. In Grandma Moses's paintings the viewer often feels the joy of life illustrated in the scenes. In *McDonnell's Farm* (1943), for example, a group of children are shown in a circular dance at the right, while all the other figures are busily engaged in farm tasks: one man loads the hay wagon, another harvests, another cuts the grass with a hooked tool called a scythe. In her paintings there is no despair, unhappiness, or aging, yet this unrealistic view of life is presented with remarkable power.

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MOTHER TERESA

Born: August 27, 1910
Skopje, Macedonia

Died: September 5, 1997

Calcutta, India

Albanian nun

Mother Teresa's devotional work among the poor and dying of India won her the Nobel Prize for Peace in 1979. She is also known as the founder of the only Catholic religious order still growing in membership.

Early life

Mother Teresa of Calcutta was born Agnes Gonxha Bojaxhiu in Skopje, Macedonia, on August 27, 1910. At the time of her birth Skopje was located within the Ottoman Empire, a vast empire controlled by the Turks in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Agnes was the last of three children born to Nikola and Dranfile Bojaxhiu, Albanian grocers. When Agnes was nine years old, her happy, comfortable, close-knit family life was upset when her father died. She attended public school in Skopje, and first showed religious interests as a member of a school society that focused on foreign missions (groups that travel to foreign countries to spread their religious beliefs). By the age of twelve she felt she had a calling to help the poor.

This calling took sharper focus through Mother Teresa's teenage years, when she was especially inspired by reports of work being done in India by Yugoslav Jesuit missionaries serving in Bengal, India. When she was eighteen, Mother Teresa left home to join a community of Irish nuns, the Sisters of Loretto, who had a mission in Calcutta, India. She received training in Dublin, Ireland, and in Darjeeling, India, taking her first religious vows in 1928 and her final religious vows in 1937.

One of Mother Teresa's first assignments was to teach, and eventually to serve as principal, in a girls' high school in Calcutta. Although the school was close to the slums (terribly poor sections), the students were mainly wealthy. In 1946 Mother Teresa experienced what she called a second vocation or "call within a call." She felt an inner urging to leave the convent life (life of a nun) and work directly with the poor. In 1948 the Vatican (residence of the pope in Vatican City, Italy) gave her permission to leave the Sisters of Loretto and to start a new work under the guidance of the Archbishop of Calcutta.

Founding the Missionaries of Charity

To prepare to work with the poor, Mother Teresa took an intensive medical training with the American Medical Missionary Sisters in Patna, India. Her first venture in Calcutta was to gather unschooled children from the slums and start to teach them. She quickly attracted both financial support and volunteers. In 1950 her group, now called the Missionaries of Charity, received official status as a religious community within the Archdiocese of Calcutta. Members took the traditional vows of poverty, chastity (purity), and obedience, but they added a fourth vow—to give free service to the most poor.

The Missionaries of Charity received considerable publicity, and Mother Teresa used it to benefit her work. In 1957 they began to work with lepers (those suffering from leprosy, a terrible infectious disease) and slowly expanded their educational work, at one point running nine elementary schools in Calcutta. They also opened a home for orphans and abandoned children. Before

long they had a presence in more than twenty-two Indian cities. Mother Teresa also visited other countries such as Ceylon (now Sri Lanka), Australia, Tanzania, Venezuela, and Italy to begin new foundations.

Dedication to the very poor

Mother Teresa's group continued to expand throughout the 1970s, opening new missions in places such as Amman, Jordan; London, England; and New York, New York. She received both recognition and financial support through such awards as the Pope John XXIII Peace Prize and a grant from the Joseph Kennedy Jr. Foundation. Benefactors, or those donating money, regularly would arrive to support works in progress or to encourage the Sisters to open new ventures.

By 1979 Mother Teresa's groups had more than two hundred different operations in over twenty-five countries around the world, with dozens more ventures on the horizon. The same year she was awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace. In 1986 she persuaded President Fidel Castro (1926–) to allow a mission in Cuba. The characteristics of all of Mother Teresa's works—shelters for the dying, orphanages, and homes for the mentally ill—continued to be of service to the very poor.

In 1988 Mother Teresa sent her Missionaries of Charity into Russia and opened a home for acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; an incurable disease that weakens the immune system) patients in San Francisco, California. In 1991 she returned home to Albania and opened a home in Tirana, the capital. At this time there were 168 homes operating in India.



Mother Teresa.

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Saint Teresa

Despite the appeal of this saintly work, all commentators remarked that Mother Teresa herself was the most important reason for the growth of her order and the fame that came to it. Unlike many “social critics,” she did not find it necessary to attack the economic or political structures of the cultures that were producing the terribly poor people she was serving. For her, the primary rule was a constant love, and when social critics or religious reformers (improvers) chose to demonstrate anger at the evils of structures underlying poverty and suffering, that was between them and God.

In the 1980s and 1990s Mother Teresa's health problems became a concern. She suffered a heart attack while visiting Pope John Paul II (1920–) in 1983. She had a near fatal heart attack in 1989 and began wearing a pacemaker, a device that regulates the heart-beat.

In March 1997, after an eight week selection process, sixty-three-year-old Sister Nirmala was named as the new leader of the Missionaries of Charity. Although Mother Teresa had been trying to cut back on her duties for some time because of her health, she stayed on in an advisory role to Sister Nirmala.

Mother Teresa celebrated her eighty-seventh birthday in August, and died shortly thereafter of a heart attack on September 5, 1997. The world grieved her loss and one mourner noted, "It was Mother herself who poor people respected. When they bury her, we will have lost something that cannot be replaced."

Legacy of Mother Teresa

In appearance Mother Teresa was both tiny and energetic. Her face was quite wrinkled, but her dark eyes commanded attention, radiating an energy and intelligence that shone without expressing nervousness or impatience. Conservatives within the Catholic Church sometimes used her as a symbol of traditional religious values that they felt were lacking in their churches. By most accounts she was a saint for the times, and several almost adoring books and articles started to canonize (declare a saint) her in the 1980s and well into the 1990s. She herself tried to deflect all attention away from what she did to either the works of her group or to the God who was her inspiration.

The Missionaries of Charity, who had brothers as well as sisters by the mid-1980s, are guided by the constitution Mother Teresa wrote for them. They have their vivid memories of the love for the poor that created the phenomenon of Mother Teresa in the first place. The final part of her story will be the lasting impact her memory has on the next generations of missionaries, as well as on the world as a whole.

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WOLFGANG AMADEUS MOZART

Born: January 27, 1756

Salzburg, Austria

Died: December 5, 1791

Vienna, Austria

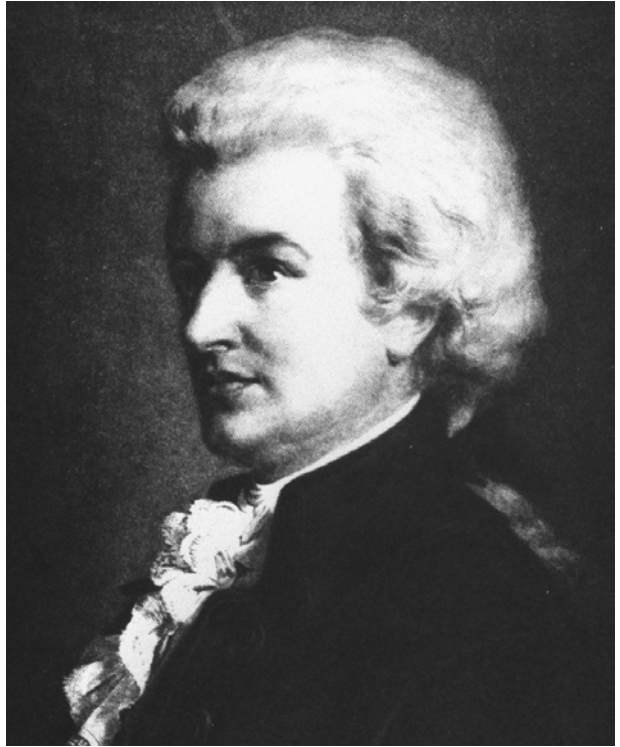
Austrian composer

Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart was an Austrian composer (a writer of music) whose mastery of the whole range of contemporary (modern) instrumental and vocal forms—including the symphony, concerto, chamber music, and especially the opera—was unchallenged in his own time and perhaps in any other.

Child prodigy

Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart was born on January 27, 1756, in Salzburg, Austria. His father, Leopold Mozart, a noted composer, instructor, and the author of famous writings on violin playing, was then in the service of the archbishop of Salzburg. Leopold and Anna Maria, his wife, stressed the importance of music to their children. Together with his sister, Nannerl, Wolfgang received such intensive musical training that by the age of six he was a budding composer and an accomplished keyboard performer. In 1762 Leopold presented his son as performer at the imperial court in Vienna, Austria, and from 1763 to 1766 he escorted both children on a continuous musical tour across Europe, which included long stays in Paris, France, and London, England, as well as visits to many other cities, with appearances before the French and English royal families.

Mozart was the most celebrated child prodigy (an unusually gifted child) of this time as a keyboard performer. He also made a great impression as a composer and improviser (one who arranges or creates). In London he won the admiration of musician Johann Christian Bach (1735–1782), and he was exposed from an early age to an unusual variety of musical styles and tastes across Europe.



Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Gaining fame

From the age of ten to seventeen, Mozart's reputation as a composer grew to a degree of maturity equal to that of most older established musicians. He spent the years from 1766 to 1769 at Salzburg writing instrumental works and music for school dramas in German and Latin, and in 1768 he produced his first real operas: the German Singspiel (that is, with spoken dialogue) *Bastien und Bastienne*. Despite his growing reputation, Mozart found no suitable post open to him; and his father once more escorted Mozart, at age fourteen (1769), and set off for Italy to try to make his way as an opera composer.

In Italy, Mozart was well received: in Milan, Italy, he obtained a commission for an opera; in Rome he was made a member of an honorary knightly order by the Pope; and at Bologna, Italy, the Accademia Filarmonica awarded him membership despite a rule normally requiring candidates to be twenty years old. During these years of travel in Italy and returns to Salzburg between journeys, he produced his first large-scale settings of opera seria (that is, court opera on serious subjects): *Mitridate* (1770), *Ascanio in Alba* (1771), and *Lucio Silla* (1772), as well as his first string quartets. At Salzburg in late 1771 he renewed his writing of Symphonies (Nos. 14–21).

In Paris and Vienna

Paris was a vastly larger theater for Mozart's talents. His father urged him to go there, for "from Paris the fame of a man of great talent echoes through the whole world," he wrote his son. But after nine difficult months in Paris, from March 1778 to January 1779, Mozart returned once more to Salzburg, having been unable to secure a foothold and depressed by the entire experience, which had included the death of his mother in the midst of his stay in Paris. Unable to get hired for an opera, he wrote music to order in Paris, again mainly for wind instruments: the *Sinfonia Concertante* for four solo wind instruments and orchestra, the Concerto for flute and harp, other chamber music, and the ballet music *Les Petits riens*. In addition, he began giving lessons to make money.

Mozart's years in Vienna, from age twenty-five to his death at thirty-five, cover one of the greatest developments in a short span in the history of music. In these ten years Mozart's music grew rapidly beyond the

realm of many of his contemporaries; it exhibited both ideas and methods of elaboration that few could follow, and to many the late Mozart seemed a difficult composer.

The major instrumental works of this period bring together all the fields of Mozart's earlier activity and some new ones: six symphonies, including the famous last three: no. 39 in E-flat Major, no. 40 in G Minor, and no. 41 in C Major (the *Jupiter*—a title unknown to Mozart). He finished these three works within six weeks during the summer of 1788, a remarkable feat even for him.

In the field of the string quartet Mozart produced two important groups of works that completely overshadowed any he had written before 1780: in 1785 he published the six Quartets (K. 387, 421, 428, 458, 464, and 465) and in 1786 added the single Hoffmeister Quartet (K. 499). In 1789 he wrote the last three Quartets (K. 575, 589, and 590), dedicated to King Frederick William (1688–1740) of Prussia, a noted cellist.

Operas of the Vienna years

Mozart's development as an opera composer between 1781 and his death is even more remarkable, perhaps, since the problems of opera were more far-ranging than those of the larger instrumental forms and provided less adequate models. The first important result was the German Singspiel entitled *Die Entführung aus dem Serail* (1782; *Abduction from the Seraglio*). Mozart then turned to Italian opera. Mozart produced his three greatest Italian operas: *Le nozze di Figaro* (1786; *The Marriage of Figaro*), *Don Giovanni* (1787, for Prague), and *Così fan tutte* (1790). In his last opera, *The Magic Flute* (1791), Mozart turned back to German opera, and he

produced a work combining many strands of popular theater and including musical expressions ranging from folk to opera.

On concluding *The Magic Flute*, Mozart turned to work on what was to be his last project, the *Requiem*. This Mass had been commissioned by a benefactor (financial supporter) said to have been unknown to Mozart, and he is supposed to have become obsessed with the belief that he was, in effect, writing it for himself. Ill and exhausted, he managed to finish the first two movements and sketches for several more, but the last three sections were entirely lacking when he died. It was completed by his pupil Franz Süssmayer after his death, which occurred in Vienna, Austria, on December 5, 1791.

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HOSNI MUBARAK

Born: May 4, 1928

Kafr-El Meselha, Egypt

Egyptian president

Hosni Mubarak became president of Egypt after the assassination (political murder) of Anwar Sadat (1918–1981). He continued his country's peace with Israel, made efforts to bring peace to the entire Middle East, and cracked down on Islamic groups that participated in terrorist activities.

Early years

Hosni Mubarak was born on May 4, 1928 in the Nile delta province of Minufiya. He had four siblings and his father was a minor official in the Ministry of Justice. Mubarak's village of Kafr-El Meselha was known for its schools and had produced four cabinet ministers. Mubarak did well in school and completed primary schooling in his village and secondary studies in the nearby capital of Shubin El-Kom, Egypt, before going on to Egypt's Military Academy and then its Air Academy. He graduated from the Air Academy in 1950, completing his studies in only two years by attending year-round. He became a pilot and received part of his training in the former Soviet Union.

Military career

Mubarak was an instructor at the Air Academy and commanded Egypt's bomber force in the Yemen civil war in the 1960s. He was named director of the Air Academy in 1967 and given the important task of rebuilding the air force, which the Israelis had destroyed in the Six Day War of June 1967. Mubarak moved up to air force chief of staff in 1969 and commander in chief in 1972. He helped plan a successful surprise attack on Israeli forces occupying the east



Hosni Mubarak.

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bank of the Suez Canal in October 1973, launching the Yom Kippur War.

President Sadat named Mubarak vice president in 1975. Sadat preferred the international spotlight to administrative work, so Mubarak took over the day-to-day running of the government, leading cabinet meetings and handling security details. He gained foreign affairs experience with many trips to other countries, including Syria, Iraq, the United States, and China. His experience was important in the talks leading to the 1978 Camp David Accords, agreements signed by Egypt and Israel that ended years of conflict.

Takes over as president

Mubarak escaped with a minor hand wound when Islamic fundamentalists (those who interpret their religious beliefs as law) assassinated Sadat in October 1981. Taking over as president, he moved quickly to crush an Islamic uprising and jailed over two-thousand five-hundred members of militant (engaging in violence) Islamic groups. Mubarak kept most of Sadat's foreign and domestic policies, including the Camp David treaty and Sadat's close ties to the United States. All the Arab states but three had criticized Egypt for the treaty with Israel, so Mubarak tried to rebuild relations with Jordan, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and Palestine Liberation Organization leader Yasir Arafat (1929–). It was Mubarak who encouraged Arafat to compromise and recognize Israel's right to exist.

Throughout the 1980s Mubarak increased the production of affordable housing, clothing, furniture, and medicine. He also kept a close eye on his officials, firing ministers at the first hint of wrongdoing and fining members of parliament for unnecessary absences. Egypt's heavy dependence on U.S. aid and her hopes for U.S. pressure on Israel for a Palestinian settlement continued under Mubarak. He also quietly improved relations with the former Soviet Union. In 1987 Mubarak won election to a second six-year term.

More Middle East conflict

Mubarak was angered over the 1990 Iraqi invasion of Kuwait, and he sent forty-five thousand troops to help fight back against the Iraqis. In 1993 he was reelected with 96.3 percent of the vote, a sign of the Egyptian people's approval of his stand against Islamic fundamentalists. Plots to assassinate Mubarak had

surfaced in 1992, 1993, and 1995, after two policemen were killed in another attack against the president. But Mubarak continued his tough stance. His crackdown led to charges against his government of torture, threats to the press, and other human rights abuses.

In September 1999 Egyptian voters elected Mubarak to a fourth six-year term in office. In 2000 he became the first Egyptian head of state to visit Lebanon since 1952. He also continued his efforts to achieve peace in the Middle East, meeting with Arafat, Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Barak (1942–), and U.S. President Bill Clinton (1946–). During these meetings he urged the foreign leaders to end the violence for the benefit of the entire region. In October 2001 Mubarak ordered hundreds of Islamic militants to stand trial in Egyptian courts for participating in terrorist activities.

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MUHAMMAD

Born: c. 570

Mecca, Arabia

Died: 632

Medina, Arabia

Arabian prophet

Muhammad was the founder of the religion of Islam and of a community at Medina that later developed into the Arab Empire.

Call to be a prophet

Muhammad was born after his father's death in Mecca, Arabia, around 570. His grandfather and mother both died when he was a child. As a child, he was unable by Arab custom to inherit anything. He was therefore relatively poor until about 595, when a wealthy woman, Khadija, asked him to go to Syria as a steward (protector, manager) of her trading supplies. After the successful accomplishment of the mission, she offered him marriage. She was a rich widow fifteen years his senior. She and Muhammad had four daughters, and several infant sons who died. From this time onward Muhammad was wealthy, but he began to spend time in solitary reflection on the problems of Mecca, where religious principles were being degraded and general unrest was in the city.

During a period of solitude around the year 610, Muhammad heard a voice as he meditated (focused his thoughts in a manner of prayer). The voice said, "You are the Messenger of God" (this being the title more frequently given to him by Muslims than that of prophet). Muhammad later decided he had heard the archangel Gabriel. He also found certain words "in his heart" (that is, his mind) as he meditated. Friends helped to convince him that he was called to convey messages from God to the Arabs as Moses (c. 1392–c. 1272 B.C.E.) and Jesus Christ (c. 6 B.C.E.–c. 30 C.E.) had done to the Jews and Christians. He continued to receive such messages from time to time until his death. They were collected into chapters and make up the Koran (Qur'an). The Koran, though sent through Muhammad, is held by Muslims to come from God.

Meccan preacher

At first Muhammad told these messages only to sympathetic friends, but from 612 or 613 he stated them publicly. Many people in Mecca, especially younger men, became followers of Muhammad. These members of his new religion of Islam became known as Muslims. In the course of time, however, resistance to Muhammad appeared among the leading merchants of Mecca, and he and his followers were sometimes mistreated. Apparently to escape the mistreatment, approximately eighty of his followers traveled to Ethiopia. About 616, pressure in the form of a boycott (refusal to trade with) was placed on the clan of Hashim to make it cease protecting Muhammad. But until after the death of the head of the clan, Muhammad's uncle Abu-Talib, it was felt that to abandon him would be dishonorable.

The new head, however, found a justified way to leave Muhammad behind, and it became virtually impossible for Muhammad to continue preaching in Mecca. In September 622, after secret negotiations over the previous two years, he settled in the area of Medina, two hundred miles to the north, where seventy of his followers had already gone. This "emigration" (leaving one's living place for another) is the Hijra (Latin, *hegira*), on which the Islamic era is based.

First years at Medina

The Arab clans of Medina mostly acknowledged Muhammad's prophethood and entered into association with him and the emigrants (those who leave their country) from Mecca. At first the emigrants depended on Medinese hospitality, but soon small groups of them began to attempt raids on

Meccan caravans. Later the Muslims of Medina also joined in. At first the raids had little success, but in March 624 a larger band of just over three hundred, led by Muhammad himself, defeated a supporting force of perhaps eight hundred Meccans with heavy losses. This was a serious blow to Meccan reputation, and the Muslims felt that God was defending Muhammad.

To teach Muhammad a lesson, the Meccans in March 625 invaded the Medinese area with about three thousand men. Many Muslims were killed before they could regain the safety of the hill. Militarily this was not a serious loss for Muhammad, since the Meccans had also suffered casualties and retreated immediately; but the loss shook the belief that God was defending him. Confidence was only gradually restored.

The next major event was the siege of Medina by ten thousand Meccans and allies in April 627. Muhammad protected the central part of the area by a trench that tricked the cavalry. After two weeks Meccans and their allies retreated. In March 628 the Meccans settled the Treaty of al-Hudaybiya with him. The treaty was a triumph for Muhammad. In the following months many nomadic (having to do with moving from area to area) tribesmen and a few leading Meccans joined Muhammad and became Muslims. When the treaty was criticized in January 630, Muhammad was able to march on Mecca with ten thousand men. Muhammad entered Mecca in triumph. Two weeks later two thousand joined Muhammad's army in opposing a concentration of tribesmen east of Mecca and shared in the victory of Hunayn.

New religion

By 630 the religion of Islam had become firmly rooted. In the earliest parts of the Koran, it emphasized God's goodness and power and called on men to acknowledge this in worship. It also stated the reality of the Day of Judgment, when men would be assigned to paradise or hell depending on their attitude toward God, their generosity with their wealth, and similar points. These matters were significant to the tensions of Mecca, which were seen as arising from the merchants' overconfidence in their wealth and power. The Koran contained attacks on idols (symbols of objects to be worshipped) and a resolve that "there is no deity but God."

The religious practices of the Muslims included communal worship or prayers several times a day touching the ground with the forehead in acknowledgement of God's majesty. They also gave alms (money to the poor). At Medina the fast (not eating any food) from sunrise to sunset during the month of Ramadan (sacred ninth month of the Islamic calendar) was introduced; and when circumstances made it possible, some of the ceremonies of the traditional pilgrimage (holy journey) to Mecca became a duty for Muslims.

Years of triumph

Beyond Medina a system of alliances was gradually built up with the nomadic Arab tribes. As Muhammad grew stronger, he came to insist that those wanting an association should become Muslims. After the conquest of Mecca and the victory at Hunayn in January 630, he was the strongest man in Arabia, and delegations came from tribes seeking alliance with him. When he died on



Muhammad.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

June 8, 632, he was in effective control of a large part of Arabia.

Muhammad's personality and achievement

Muhammad is said to have been a fast walker, of sturdy build, with a prominent forehead, a hooked nose, large brownish-black eyes, and a pleasant smile. He showed great charm in his dealings with people and, when appropriate, gentleness and even tenderness. Medieval Europe (500–1500), however, on the defensive against Arab armies and Islamic culture, came to look on him as a monster or demon.

At times Muhammad was indeed harsh to those in his power, but this was not out of keeping with the times. His marital relations—at his death he had nine wives and one concubine (a kept woman without marriage)—must also be judged in the framework of the times. A political purpose can be traced in all of his marriages. For his time he was a man seeking positive change for his people.

Politically Muhammad's greatest achievement was to create the framework that made possible the uniting of the Arab tribes. He also won over his chief Meccan opponents, and their administrative skills were later invaluable in conquering and ruling many provinces. The growth of the Arab Empire, and with it the religion of Islam, was made possible by favorable circumstances; but the opportunity would not have been grasped but for Muhammad's gifts as visionary, statesman, and administrator.

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ELIJAH MUHAMMAD

Born: October 7, 1897

Sandersville, Georgia

Died: February 25, 1975

Chicago, Illinois

African American religious leader

Elijah Muhammad was the leader of the Nation of Islam ("Black Muslims") during their period of greatest growth in the mid-twentieth century. He was a major promoter of independent, black-operated businesses, institutions, and religion.

Early life

Elijah Muhammad was born Elijah (or Robert) Poole on October 7, 1897, near Sandersville, Georgia. His parents were former slaves who worked as sharecroppers (farming the owner's land for a share of the crops) on a cotton plantation; his father was also a Baptist preacher. One of thirteen children, his schooling only lasted until he was nine; then Elijah had to work in the fields and on the railroad. His light skin color made him even more aware of the injustices (unfair treatments) that had been done to his ancestors. He left home at age sixteen to travel and work at odd jobs. He settled in Detroit, Michigan, in 1923, working on a car assembly line.

Poole became an early follower of W. D. Fard (c. 1877–c. 1934), the founder of the Nation of Islam, a religious faith practiced by Muslims in which Allah is the one god and Muhammad is his prophet (one who speaks through messages from a divine source). Fard

appeared in Detroit in 1930, selling silk goods and telling his customers in the African American ghetto of their ancestral “home-land” across the seas. Fard proclaimed Islam the one correct religion for African Americans, denouncing Christianity as the religion of the slave masters. Soon Fard announced the opening of the Temple of Islam. It featured an unorthodox (nontraditional) form of Islam, but the movement also emphasized African American self-help and education.

Life as leader

Fard disappeared, as mysteriously as he had arrived, in the summer of 1934. The movement he had founded quickly developed several smaller groups. The most important was led by Poole, who had become a top leader to Fard and who had changed his name along the way to Elijah Muhammad. The movement had long had a policy of requiring members to drop their “slave” names.

Settling in Chicago, Illinois, Muhammad built what quickly became the most important center of the movement. Chicago soon featured not only a Temple of Islam, but a newspaper called *Muhammad Speaks*, a University of Islam, and several apartment houses, grocery stores, and restaurants—all owned by the movement. Temples were opened in other cities, and farms were purchased so that “pure” food could be made available to members. The movement was very controlled. Members had strict rules to follow regarding eating (various foods, such as pork, were forbidden), smoking and drinking (both banned), dress and appearance (conservative, neat clothing and good grooming were required), and personal



Elijah Muhammad.

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behavior—drugs, the use of foul language, gambling, listening to music, and dancing were all not allowed.

Muhammad also revised the religion of the movement. Under his system Fard was proclaimed the earthly representative of Allah, and Elijah Muhammad was his divinely appointed prophet. Muhammad also taught that black people were the original human beings and that white people had been given a temporary privilege to govern the world. That period, however, was due to end soon; the time was at hand for black people to resume their former dominant role.

In 1942 Muhammad was one of a group of militant African American leaders arrested on charges of violation of the draft laws. He was accused of sympathizing with the Japanese during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis—Germany, Japan, and Italy—and the Allies—England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States) and of encouraging his members to resist the military draft. He had, indeed, argued that white people oppressed (forced down) all people of color, and that it made no sense for African Americans to fight those who were victims of white discrimination (an unjust treatment or judgment because of differences) as much as they themselves were. For his words and actions Muhammad spent four years, from 1942 to 1946, in a federal prison at Milan, Michigan.

Splintering off

Small groups of like-minded individuals occasionally withdrew from Muhammad's movement. In the early 1960s Muhammad came to be overshadowed by the charming Malcolm X (1925–1967), leader of the New York Temple. In 1964 Malcolm X founded his own movement, which moved toward a more traditional form of Islam. However, Malcolm X was assassinated on February 21, 1965.

Elijah Muhammad died on February 25, 1975. After his death the leadership of his movement passed to his son, Wallace (now Warith) Deen Muhammad, who renamed the movement the World Community of Al-Islam in the West, and then the American Muslim Mission. Warith Muhammad relaxed the strict dress code, abandoned resistance to military service, encouraged members to vote and to salute the flag, and even opened the

movement to white people. In general, he made the movement much more conventionally Islamic.

Many members were disturbed at the movement's new, moderate direction. The most important of them formed a new group called the Nation of Islam, led by Louis Farrakhan (1933–). Farrakhan generally retained Elijah Muhammad's ideas and practices.

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JOHN MUIR

Born: April 21, 1838

Dunbar, Scotland

Died: December 24, 1914

Los Angeles, California

Scottish-born American naturalist and explorer

The writings of John Muir, American naturalist (a scientist of natural history) and explorer, are important for their scientific observations and their contributions to the cause of conservation (the preservation and protection of natural resources).

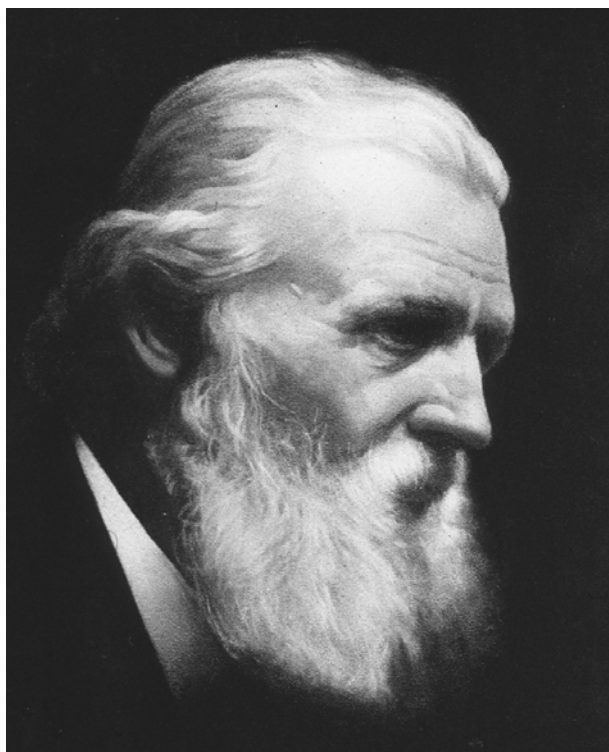
Early life

John Muir was born in Dunbar, Scotland, on April 21, 1838. He was the third of Daniel and Anne Gilrye Muir's eight children. Muir recalled in *The Story of My Boyhood and Youth* (1913) that his father was religious and extremely strict, keeping his children in line with frequent whippings. In 1849 the Muirs moved to the United States and bought farmland near Portage, Wisconsin. Muir's father worked him hard on the farm and would not allow him to waste daylight hours on reading. Muir asked for and received permission to rise early in order to study. He invented an "early-rising machine" that dumped him out of bed at one o'clock each morning so that he could read. In 1860 he displayed this and other inventions at the Wisconsin State Fair.

Student of nature

In 1861 Muir entered the University of Wisconsin to study science. He also tried studying medicine but soon gave it up for various jobs that challenged his skill at inventing things. His interest in nature, particularly plants, was growing; he made frequent trips throughout Wisconsin and nearby states to observe plant life. In 1867 he gave up his own inventions "to study the inventions of God." He set out on the walk described in *A Thousand Mile Walk to the Gulf* (1916). Actually, he went as far as Cuba. In 1868 he traveled to San Francisco, California, and worked on a sheep ranch. Exploring Yosemite Valley occupied much of his next six years. On all of his explorations he kept a journal of scientific and personal observations and also pencil drawings.

In 1880, after returning from exploring in Alaska, Muir married Louie Wanda



John Muir.

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Strentzel, the daughter of a Polish plant grower. They would have two children. In 1881, after another trip to Alaska, Muir settled on a fruit ranch near Martinez, California. He worked for ten years to make enough money to enable him to stop. Having provided permanently for his wife, two daughters, and himself, he turned his full attention to the study of nature. Glaciers and freezing particularly interested him, and his work contributed to an explanation of the process by which glaciers are formed. He also went on expeditions to Europe, Asia, and Australia.

Pioneer in conservation movement

In 1889 Muir argued in *Century* magazine that Yosemite Valley should become a national park. The passage of a law in 1890 making that happen owed much to Muir's influence. *The Mountains of California* (1893), *Our National Parks* (1901), and his many articles in popular magazines greatly advanced the conservation movement, as did his creation in 1892 of the Sierra Club, an organization dedicated to preserving wild lands such as Yosemite. Muir served as the president of the club until his death.

Muir's wife died in 1905. From then until his death Muir published four books, including *Stickeen* (1909), which was a popular dog story, and *My First Summer in the Sierra* (1911). He died in Los Angeles, California, on December 24, 1914. *John of the Mountain*, drawn from Muir's journal of his 1899 Alaskan expedition, was published in 1938.

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EDVARD MUNCH

Born: December 12, 1863

Loieten, Norway

Died: January 23, 1944

Oslo, Norway

Norwegian painter and artist

The Norwegian painter and graphic artist Edvard Munch illustrated man's emotional life in love and death. His art was a major influence of the expressionist movement, in which where artists sought to give rise to emotional responses.

Early life

Born on December 12, 1863, in Loieten, near Kristiania (now Oslo), Norway, Edvard Munch was the son of a military doctor. Childhood experiences with death and sickness—both his mother and sister died of tuberculosis (an often-fatal disease that attacks the lungs and bones)—greatly influenced his emotional and intellectual development. This and his father's fanatic Christianity led Munch to view his life as dominated by the “twin black angels of insanity and disease.”

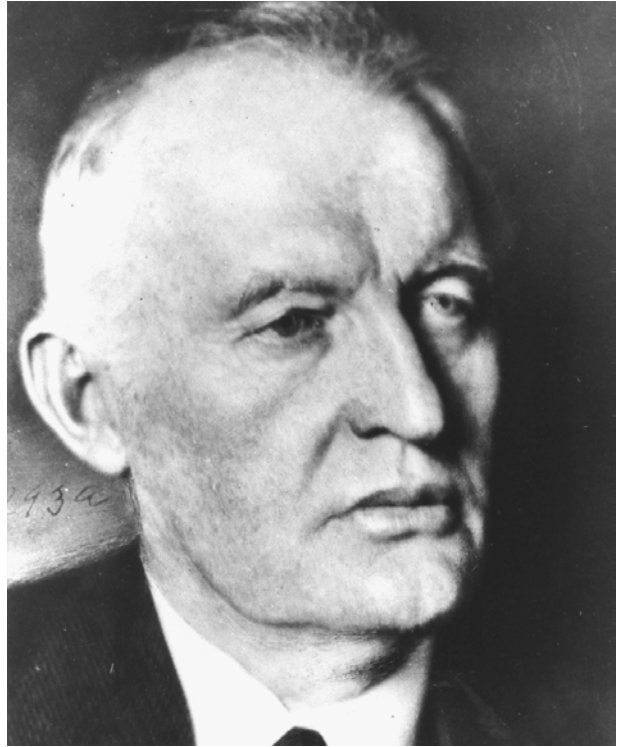
After studying engineering, Munch soon turned to art. In 1880 Munch began to study art and joined the realist painters (school of painters who sought to depict their subjects as realistically as possible) and writers of the Kristiania bohemian (fashionable and uncon-

ventional) circle. His ideas were strongly influenced at this time by the writer Hans Jaeger (1854–1910), who sought to establish an ideal society based on materialist atheism (not believing in material wealth) and free love. Jaeger's hopeless love affair with the wife of Christian Krohg, leader of the bohemian painters, and Munch's own brief affairs caused him to intensify the connection he saw between women, love, and death.

Munch's paintings during the 1880s were dominated by his desire to use the artistic vocabulary of realism to create subjective content, or content open to interpretation of the viewer. His *Sick Child* (1885–1886), which used a motif (dominant theme) popular among Norwegian realist artists, created through color a mood of depression that served as a memorial to his dead sister. Because of universal critical rejection, Munch turned briefly to a more mainstream style, and through the large painting *Spring* (1889), a more academic version of the *Sick Child*, he obtained state support for study in France.

A change

After studying briefly at a Parisian art school, Munch began to explore the possibilities made available by the French postimpressionists, a movement that looked to push impressionism beyond its limitations. The death of his father in 1889 caused a major spiritual crisis, and he soon rejected Jaeger's philosophy. Munch's *Night in St. Cloud* (1890) embodied a renewed interest in spiritual content; this painting served as a memorial to his father by presenting the artist's dejected state of mind. He summarized his intentions, saying "I paint not what I see, but what I saw," and identified his paintings as "symbolism: nature



Edvard Munch.

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viewed through a temperament" (manner of thinking). Both statements accent the transformation of nature as the artist experienced it.

In 1892 the Berlin Artists' Association, an official organization consisting primarily of German academic artists, invited Munch to exhibit in Berlin, Germany. His paintings created a major scandal in Germany's artistic capital, and the exhibition was closed. But Munch used the publicity to arrange other exhibitions and sell paintings; his art prospered and he decided to stay in Germany. He also began work on a series of paintings later entitled the *Frieze of Life*, which concentrated on the themes of love, anxiety, and death.

To make his work accessible to a larger public, Munch began making prints (works of art that could be easily copied) in 1894. Motifs for his prints were usually derived from his paintings, particularly the *Frieze*. The *Frieze* also served as the inspiration for the paintings he made for Max Linde (1904), Max Reinhardt's *Kammerspielhaus* (1907), and the *Freia Chocolate Factory in Oslo* (1922).

Later years

Following a nervous breakdown, Munch entered a hospital in Copenhagen, Denmark, in 1908. In the lithograph (a type of print) series *Alpha and Omega* he depicted his love affairs and his relationship to friends and enemies. In 1909 he returned to Norway to lead an isolated life. He sought new artistic motifs in the Norwegian landscape and in the activities of farmers and laborers. A more optimistic view of life briefly replaced his former anxiety, and this new life view attained monumental expression in the murals of the Oslo University Aula (1911–1914).

During World War I (1914–18), when Germany led forces against the forces of much of Europe and the United States, Munch returned to his earlier motifs of love and death. Symbolic paintings and prints appeared side by side with stylized studies of landscapes and nudes during the 1920s. As a major project, never completed, he began to illustrate Henrik Ibsen's (1828–1906) plays. During his last years, plagued by partial blindness, Munch edited the diaries written in his youth and painted harsh self-portraits and memories of his earlier life. He died in Ekely outside Oslo on January 23, 1944.

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RUPERT MURDOCH

Born: March 11, 1931

Melbourne, Australia

Australian publisher

Starting out as a newspaper publisher in his native Australia, Rupert Murdoch became a powerful media entrepreneur (someone who begins a business venture) with many publications in England and the United States. His style of journalism brought criticism from serious readers but served the entertainment needs of a wide audience.

Early life

Born March 11, 1931, in Melbourne, Australia, Keith Rupert Murdoch was the second son of a distinguished journalist. He and his two sisters and a brother were raised on a farm. His mother surrounded her children with classics in literature as well as music, with their living room hosting a grand piano.

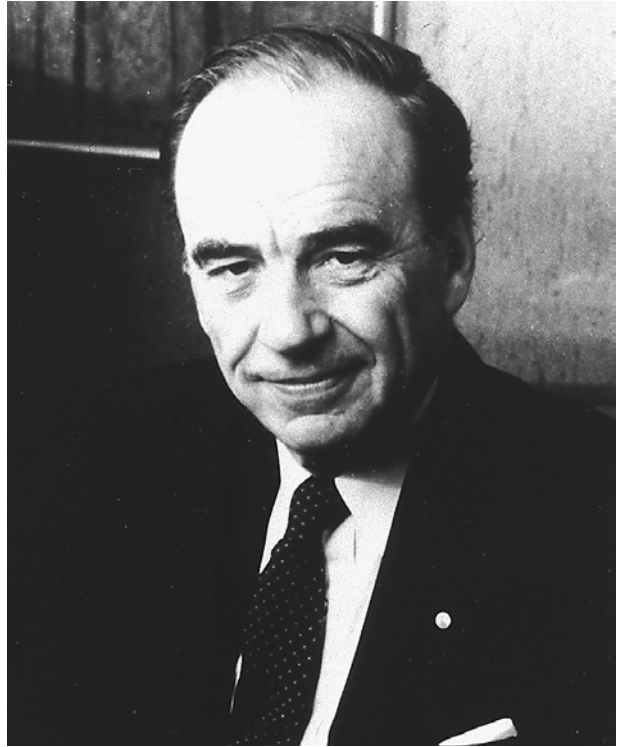
Rupert learned to ride horses at the age of five. His childhood has been described as ideal. His father, Sir Keith Murdoch, was a celebrated World War I (1914–18) reporter, who later became chief executive of the leading Melbourne *Herald* newspaper group.

After studying at Oxford University in England, Murdoch entered journalism as a reporter for the *Birmingham Gazette* and served an apprenticeship at the London *Daily Express*, where he learned the secrets of building circulation (average number of copies of a publication sold over a given time period). Returning to Australia to begin his publishing career, Murdoch revived the *Adelaide News* that he had inherited after his father's death in 1952.

Publishing world

In the process of expanding his \$1.4 billion-a-year News Corporation Limited, Murdoch often heard from critics who disliked his entertaining style of journalism. He applied a recognizable formula to most of his papers. His trademark operations included rigid cost controls, circulation gimmicks (tricks to gain sales), flashy headlines, and a steady emphasis on sex, crime, and scandal stories. Murdoch's brand of publishing was scorned as rude and irresponsible by his fellow publishers.

In early 1969 Murdoch became a London publisher when he gained control of the Sunday paper *News of the World*, the largest English-language circulation paper in the world. Later in 1969 he bought a worn-down liberal paper, the *Sun*, which he transformed into an eye-catching tabloid featuring daily displays of a topless girl on page three. The *Sun* became the most profitable paper in his



Rupert Murdoch.

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empire. In 1981 Murdoch bought the failing but prestigious London *Times*.

Murdoch expanded into the American market in 1973 when he acquired the San Antonio *Express and News*. In early 1974 he started the weekly tabloid the *National Star* (later renamed *Star*) to compete with the popular *Enquirer*. It adopted a format based on celebrity gossip, health tips, and self-help advice that boosted its circulation to almost four million.

In his quest for a big-city audience, Murdoch surprised the publishing world in 1976

when he bought the *New York Post*, a highly regarded liberal (open-minded) paper. By changing its image he nearly doubled the circulation. Murdoch's newspaper style, though, did not fare as well in the United States as in Britain. The *New York Post* was a steady financial drain despite its increased circulation. Murdoch's formula did not attract advertisers. His American papers did not show a profit until 1983.

Murdoch was seen as an effective popular journalist who gave his readers what they wanted. Ignoring his critics, he regarded most papers as too snobbish in their approach and too boring in appearance. He preferred a bright and entertaining product that would attract the largest body of readers.

Branching out

In 1983 Murdoch purchased a controlling interest (a majority of the company's stock that allowed him to make decisions for the company) in Satellite Television, a London company. His plan for beaming programs from satellites directly to homes equipped with small receivers did not progress, and his attempt to gain control of Warner Communications and its large film library did not succeed. In 1985, however, he did purchase the film company Twentieth Century Fox. A year later he bought six (Metromedia) television stations and sought to create a fourth major network called Fox Television. The United States does not permit foreign nationals to own broadcast stations. In order to maintain his control of Fox Television, Murdoch became a citizen of the United States in 1985. In 1987 he bought the U.S. publishing house Harper and Row.

Other than publishing, Murdoch's busi-

ness interests include two television stations in Australia, half ownership in the country's largest private airlines, book publishing, records, ranching, gas and oil exploration, and a share in the British wire service Reuters News Corporation Limited, which earned almost \$70 million in 1983.

Murdoch's personal wealth has been estimated at over \$340 million. Seen as fierce in his business dealings, Murdoch is known to be shy in his personal life. Living primarily in New York, he guarded his privacy with his wife Anna (a former *Sydney Daily Mirror* reporter) and their four children, one by a previous marriage. Murdoch divorced Anna in 1999 and married Wendi Deng, a former television executive more than thirty years his junior. In April 2000 he was diagnosed and treated for a "low grade" form of cancer. His radiation treatments did not slow his work pace. In 2001 Wendi had a baby girl, making Murdoch a father for the fifth time.

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BENITO MUSSELLINI

Born: July 29, 1883

Predappio, Italy

Died: April 28, 1945

Como, Italy

Italian dictator

Benito Mussolini was head of the Italian government from 1922 to 1943. He was the founder of fascism, and as a dictator he held absolute power and severely mistreated his citizens and his country. He led Italy into three straight wars, the last of which led to his overthrow by his own people.

Early life and career

Benito Mussolini was born at Dovia di Predappio, Italy, on July 29, 1883. The Mussolinis were a poor family who lived in a crowded two-bedroom apartment. His father was a blacksmith and a follower of socialism (a system providing for the sharing of land and goods equally among all people); his mother taught elementary school. Benito, although intelligent, was violent and had a large ego. He was a poor student at school and learned very little. As a student at a boarding school in Faenza, Italy, Mussolini stabbed another student, and as a result he was expelled. After receiving his diploma in 1901 he briefly taught secondary school. He went to Switzerland in 1902 to avoid military service, where he associated with other socialists. Mussolini returned to Italy in 1904, spent time in the military, and engaged in politics full time thereafter.

Mussolini had become a member of the Socialist Party in 1900 and had begun to attract wide admiration. In speeches and articles he was extreme and violent, urging revolution at any cost, but he was also well spoken. Mussolini held several posts as editor and labor leader until he emerged in the 1912 Socialist Party Congress. He became editor of the party's daily paper, *Avanti*, at the age of twenty-nine. His powerful writing injected excitement into the Socialist ranks. In a party that had accomplished little in recent years, his youth and his intense nature was an advantage. He called for revolution at a time when revolutionary feelings were sweeping the country.

From Socialist to Fascist

Mussolini deserted the Socialist Party in 1914 to cross over to the enemy camp, the Italian middle class. He knew that World War I (1914–18) would bury the old Europe, and he began to prepare for “the unknown.” In late 1914 he founded an independent newspaper, *Popolo d'Italia*, and backed it up with his own movement, the Autonomous Fascists. He drew close to the new forces in Italian politics, the extreme middle-class youth, and he made himself their spokesman. The Italian working class now called Mussolini “Judas” and “traitor.” Mussolini was wounded during army training in 1917, but he managed to return to politics that same year. His newspaper, which he now backed with a second political movement, Revolutionary Fascists, was his main strength. After the war, Mussolini's career declined. He organized his third movement, Constituent Fascists, in 1918, but it did not survive. Mussolini ran for office in the 1919 parliamentary elections but was defeated.



Benito Mussolini.

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In March 1919 Mussolini founded another movement, Fighting Fascists, won the favor of the Italian youth, and waited for events to favor him. The elections in 1921 sent him to Parliament at the head of thirty-five Fascist deputies; the third assembly of his movement gave birth to a national party, the National Fascist Party, with more than 250 thousand followers and Mussolini as its uncontested leader. In October 1922 Mussolini successfully marched into Rome, Italy. He now enjoyed the support of key groups (industry, farmers, military, and church), whose members accepted Mussolini's solution to their problems: organize

middle-class youth, control workers harshly, and set up a tough central government to restore "law and order." Thereafter, Mussolini attacked the workers and spilled their blood over Italy. It was the complete opposite of his early views of socialism.

Fascist state

Once in power, Mussolini took steps to remain there. He set general elections, but they were fixed to always provide him with an absolute majority in Parliament. The assassination of the Socialist leader Giacomo Matteotti, a noted opponent, by Fascist followers reversed his fortunes and nearly brought him down. Mussolini, however, recovered. He suspended civil liberties, destroyed all opposition, and imposed open dictatorship (absolute rule). In 1929 his Concordat with the Vatican settled the historic differences between the Italian state and the Roman Catholic Church. Pope Pius XI (1857–1939) said that Mussolini had been sent "by Divine Providence."

As the 1930s began, Mussolini was seated safely in power and enjoyed wide support. The strongest groups who had put Mussolini into power now profited from it. However, the living standard of the working majority fell; the average Italian worker's income amounted to one-half of that of a worker in France, one-third of that of a worker in England, and one-fourth of that of a worker in America. As national leader, Mussolini offered no solutions for Italy's problems. He surrounded himself with ambitious and greedy people and let them bleed Italy dry while his secret agents gathered information on opponents.

Mussolini's three wars

In 1930 economic depression (a decline in the production of goods because of a decline in demand, accompanied by rising unemployment) arrived in Italy. Mussolini reacted at first with a public works program but soon shifted to foreign adventure. The 1935 Ethiopian War was planned to direct attention away from internal problems. The "Italian Empire," Mussolini's creation, was announced in 1936. The 1936 Spanish intervention, in which Mussolini aided Francisco Franco (1892–1975) in Spain's civil war, followed but had no benefit for Italy. Mussolini then joined forces with German dictator Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) and in 1938 began to attack Jewish people within the country just as Germany was doing. As the 1930s ended, Mussolini was losing all his support within Italy.

The outbreak of World War II (1939–45) left Mussolini an unimportant figure in world politics, and he worried that Hitler would redraw the map of Europe without him. He decided "to make war at any cost." The cost was clear: modern industry, modern armies, and popular support. Mussolini lacked all of these. Nonetheless, in 1940 he pushed Italy into war against the will of the people, ignoring the only meaningful lesson of World War I: the United States alone had decided that conflict, and therefore America, not Germany, was the most important power.

Disaster and death

In 1940–41 Mussolini's armies, badly supplied and poorly led, suffered defeats from Europe across the Mediterranean to the African continent. Italy lost its war in 1942; Mussolini's power collapsed six months later. Restored as Hitler's puppet in northern Italy in 1943, he drove Italy deeper into invasion, occupation, and civil war during 1944 and 1945. The end approached, but Mussolini struggled to survive. He was finally executed by a firing squad on April 28, 1945, at Dongo in Como province.

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VLADIMIR NABOKOV

Born: April 23, 1899

St. Petersburg, Russia

Died: July 2, 1977

Montreaux, Switzerland

Russian-born American writer and poet

Russian-born American poet, fiction writer, and butterfly expert Vladimir Nabokov, most famous for the novel *Lolita*, noted for his dramatic descriptions, experimental style, and carefully structured plots, was one of the most highly acclaimed novelists of his time.

Gifted child

Vladimir Nabokov was born in St. Petersburg, Russia, on April 23, 1899, one of Vladimir Dmitrievich Nabokov and Helene Rukavishnikov Nabokov's five children. Nabokov's parents were wealthy and encouraged him to develop his imagination. He studied languages, mathematics, puzzles, and games, including chess, soccer, and boxing. He was educated by private tutors and read English before he read Russian. He entered Prince Tenishev School in St. Petersburg at age eleven. Interested in butterflies his entire life, he became a recognized authority on the subject while still young. Nabokov began writing poems when he was thirteen years old and, as he described it, "the numb fury of



Vladimir Nabokov.

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verse making first came over me.” His first book of poetry was published in 1914.

Nabokov’s father, a lawyer and newspaper editor, was part of a failed movement to establish democracy (a system of government where the people rule) in Russia. The family lost its land and fortune after the Russian Revolution (a Communist overthrow of the government) in 1917 and fled to London, England, where Nabokov entered Cambridge University in 1919. Nabokov graduated in 1922 and rejoined his family in Berlin, Germany, where his father was shot to death by a monarchist (a believer in absolute rule by a single person).

Begins writing career

Nabokov married Vera Slonim in 1925. They had one son, Dmitri, who later became an opera singer. In Berlin Nabokov taught boxing, tennis, and languages and constructed crossword puzzles. He began writing under the name “V. Sirin,” selling stories, poems, and essays to Russian-language newspapers in Berlin and then Paris, France. His work included translating different stories and poems into Russian and writing short stories, plays, novels, and criticism. In 1940 he moved to the United States.

In 1940 Nabokov taught languages at Stanford University in California. From 1941 to 1948 he taught at Wellesley College in Massachusetts, where he became a professor of literature. He also did research in entomology (the study of insects) at the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard University in Massachusetts from 1942 to 1948. He later discovered several species of butterflies, including “Nabokov’s wood nymph.” While teaching he wrote *The Real Life of Sebastian Knight* (1941), a parody (humorous imitation) of a mystery story whose hero is based on the author’s own life. In 1944 he completed a study of the life of Russian author Nicolai Gogol (1809–1852). Nabokov became an American citizen in 1945. By then his stories were appearing regularly in popular magazines.

Nabokov’s 1947 novel *Bend Sinister* is about an intellectual’s battle with a police state. In 1949 Nabokov was appointed professor of Russian and European literature at Cornell University in New York, where he taught until 1959. He wrote a book of memories of his life in Russia, *Speak, Memory*, in 1951. Several short sketches published in the

New Yorker were put together in *Pnin* (1957), his novel about a Russian teaching at an American university.

Popular success

Nabokov remained unknown to the general public until writing *Lolita*, a sad but funny account of Humbert Humbert, a middle-aged professor who falls for a twelve-year-old schoolgirl. It was first published in Paris in 1955. After its American release in 1958, some U.S. libraries banned it. The publicity helped the book become immensely popular. Nabokov also wrote the screenplay (the script for a movie) for the 1962 movie version of the book. With profits from the novel and the film, Nabokov was able to quit teaching and devote himself entirely to his writing and butterfly hunting.

In 1959 Nabokov published *Invitation to a Beheading*, a story of a man awaiting execution, which he had first written in Russian in 1938. In 1960 he moved his family to Montreux, Switzerland. He received critical praise for *Pale Fire* (1962), written as a 999-line poem with a long speech by an unstable New England scholar who is actually a mythical king in exile.

Later works

In 1963 Nabokov's English translation of Alexander Pushkin's (1799–1837) romantic novel *Eugene Onegin* was published. Nabokov called the four-volume work his "labor of love." Several translations of earlier Russian works followed, including *The Defense*, a novel about chess. Nabokov constructed his novels like puzzles, rather than

working from beginning to end. In 1964 he told *Life* magazine, "Writing has always been for me a torture and a pastime." Nabokov died on July 2, 1977, at the Palace Hotel in Montreaux.

In April 2000 Nabokov's *Butterflies: Unpublished and Uncollected Writings*, which contained fiction, poems, nonfiction, and writings related to Nabokov's love of butterflies, was published. Dmitri Nabokov translated it from Russian.

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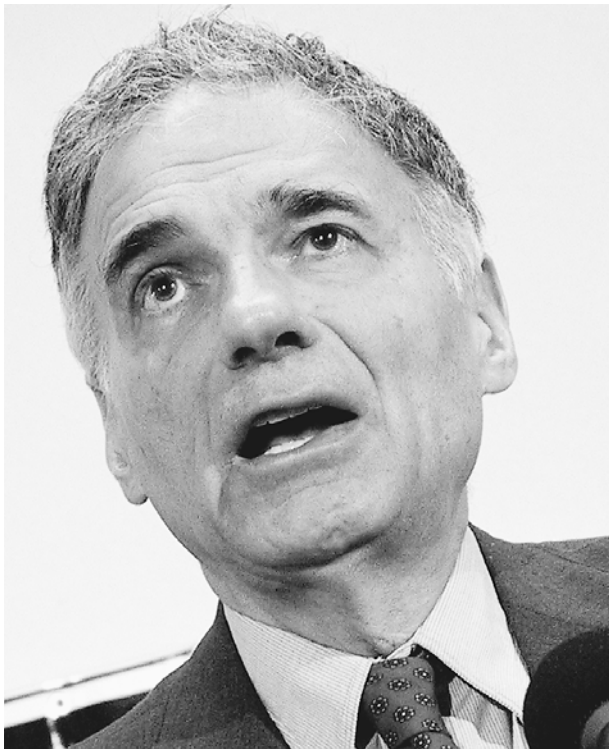
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RALPH
NADER

Born: February 27, 1934

Winsted, Connecticut

American activist, social crusader, and lawyer



Ralph Nader.

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American social crusader and lawyer Ralph Nader became a symbol of the public's concern over the business practices of large corporations. He inspired investigations that were meant to improve the operations of industries and government bureaus. He also ran for president and tried to bring about changes in the elective process to provide voters with more choices.

Dinner table discussions

Ralph Nader was born on February 27, 1934, in Winsted, Connecticut, the youngest of four children of Nadra and Rose

(Bouziane) Nader, Lebanese immigrants who operated a local restaurant and bakery. His parents led the family in political discussions every night around the dinner table. His father was against any kind of injustice and insisted that every person had an obligation to try to make the world a better place.

Nader was interested in the law at an early age; he loved reading copies of the Congressional Record (printed speeches of members of Congress) that his high-school principal gave him. He graduated from Princeton University's Woodrow Wilson School of Public and International Affairs in 1955 and then went to Harvard Law School, receiving his degree in 1958. His role as an activist began developing during college. While at Princeton he attempted, but failed, to stop the spraying of campus trees with a pesticide (spray to kill insects) called DDT. He considered pesticides to be dangerous and harmful to the environment. Nader served briefly in the U.S. Army, traveled, then opened a law office in Hartford, Connecticut. He also lectured in history and government at the University of Hartford.

Auto safety watchdog

Nader was one among many concerned about safety in auto design. While still at Harvard, he had studied auto injury cases and came to believe that design flaws, rather than driver mistakes, were responsible for the large numbers of car accidents. He testified on the subject before state legislative committees and wrote articles for magazines. In 1964 Nader was appointed a consultant (a person who provides professional advice or services) to the Department of Labor and began to study auto safety in depth. He also worked with the Government Operations Subcom-

mittee headed by Senator Abraham A. Ribicoff (1910–1998), providing it with data on auto accidents. In 1965 he left the department to prepare a book on the subject.

Nader's book *Unsafe at Any Speed: The Designed-in Dangers of the American Automobile* (1965) appeared while Ribicoff's committee was holding hearings on the subject of auto safety. Nader, after testifying before the committee, became a target of auto manufacturers then dealing with lawsuits by victims of auto accidents who blamed it on bad car designs. Although new safety laws would have eventually been established, the issue attracted public interest after Nader revealed that he had been personally harassed and his private life investigated by detectives working for General Motors. The admission in March 1966 by General Motors president James M. Roche that his firm had indeed had Nader investigated received national television coverage and made Nader a public figure. These events helped speed up the process of establishing new auto safety laws. In 1966, the National Traffic and Motor Vehicle Safety Act was passed. Nader's book became a best-seller and a factor in the new safety legislation becoming law in September. He broadened his investigations of the auto industry and the National Traffic Safety Agency, which was responsible for enforcing the new law. In November he sued General Motors for \$26 million for invasion of privacy.

Birth of "Nader's Raiders"

Nader then began a series of studies in various fields aimed at improving responsible industrial production. These included safety in mines and control of oil and gas pipes that were dangerous to people and the environ-

ment. Nader also worked on behalf of what became the 1967 Wholesome Meat Act. By being careful with his money, working efficiently, and using his income from book sales, article writing, and lectures, Nader attracted over a hundred young people—soon known as "Nader's Raiders"—from law schools and elsewhere. They helped him gather data about industries and government bureaus. In 1969 he founded his Center for the Study of Responsive Law (an organization that conducts research and publishes reports about consumer issues). In August 1970 Nader was awarded \$425,000 from his lawsuit against General Motors, funds he promptly put into his crusade.

From the late 1970s through the early 1990s, Nader's public image faded from his *Unsafe at Any Speed* days. By 1988, however, he campaigned successfully to reduce California car-insurance rates and used public opinion to help block a proposed 50-percent pay hike for members of Congress. He gained notoriety in 1990 when a *Forbes* magazine story accused him of working together with trial lawyers for supporting Americans' right to sue. The criticism failed to stop him from looking into other issues; he soon turned his attention to investigating safety flaws in the airline industry. But his book on the subject, *Collision Course: The Truth About Airline Safety*, with Wesley J. Smith (1949–), was criticized by some for its questionable use of data.

Presidential campaigns

After failing to stop the North American Free Trade Agreement (1993; an agreement between Canada, Mexico, and the United States to reduce tariffs and eliminate other barriers to trade), Nader was nominated as

the 1996 Green Party (a political party that focuses mainly on ecological and environmental issues) candidate for president, winning some support in popular polls. Nader himself summed up his philosophy this way: "You've got to keep the pressure on, even if you lose." In 1997 Nader again teamed with Wesley J. Smith to write *No Contest: Corporate Lawyers and the Perversion of Justice in America*. The book explored the business of law in which, the authors suggested, profit is more important than justice. In 1988 Nader launched Commercial Alert, an organization that fights against harmful and excessive advertising and marketing.

In June 2000 Nader again accepted the presidential nomination of the Green Party. He promised to run a campaign that focused on policies to address the gap between the rich and the poor, improve health insurance for all Americans, and challenge corporations to end practices that waste the country's resources and harm the environment. He argued that since he could see no real difference between George W. Bush (1946–) and Al Gore (1948–), the Republican and Democratic candidates, the two-party system did not give voters enough choice. Nader wound up with only 3 percent of the vote, but in one of the closest elections ever, Democrats criticized him for taking votes away from Gore and causing Bush to win key states and, therefore, the election. Nader shrugged off the criticism and went back to work to strengthen the Green Party and prepare for the next round of elections.

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NAPOLÉON BONAPARTE

Born: August 15, 1769

Ajaccio, Corsica

Died: May 5, 1821

Island of St. Helena

French dictator

Napoleon Bonaparte, French emperor, was one of the greatest military leaders in history. He helped remake the map of Europe and established many government and legal reforms, but constant battles eventually led to his downfall.

Early years

Napoleon Bonaparte was born Napoleon Buonaparte on August 15, 1769, in the Corsican city of Ajaccio. He was the fourth of eleven children of Carlo Buonaparte and Letizia Romolino. His father, a member of a noble Italian family, remained on good terms with the French when they took over control of Corsica.

Napoleon began his education at a boys' school in Ajaccio. Then, at age ten, he was allowed to enter French military schools for aristocrats and was sent in 1779, with his

older brother Joseph, to the College of Autun in Burgundy, France. Napoleon later transferred to the College of Brienne, another French military school. While at school in France, he was made fun of by the other students for his lower social standing and because he spoke Spanish and did not know French well. His small size earned him the nickname of the “Little Corporal.” Despite this teasing, Napoleon received an excellent education. When his father died, Napoleon led his household.

By 1785 Napoleon was a second lieutenant in the French army, but he often returned to Corsica. In 1792 he took part in a power struggle between forces supporting Pasquale Paoli (1725–1807), a leader in the fight for Corsican independence, and those supporting the French. After Paoli was victorious, he turned against Napoleon and the Bonaparte family, forcing them to flee back to France. Napoleon then turned his attention to a career in the army there. The French Revolution (1789–93), a movement to overthrow King Louis XVI (1754–1793) and establish a republic, had begun. Upon his return from Corsica in 1793, Napoleon made a name for himself and won a promotion by helping to defeat the British at Toulon and regain that territory for France.

Military successes

After being imprisoned for ten days on suspicion of treason and refusing assignment to lead the Army of the West, Napoleon was assigned to work for the map department of the French war office. His military career nearly ended, but when forces loyal to the king attempted to regain power in Paris in 1795, Napoleon was called in to stop the



Napoleon Bonaparte.

uprising. As a reward he was appointed commander of the Army of the Interior. Later that year Napoleon met Josephine de Beauharnais (1763–1814), and they were married in March 1796. Within a few days Napoleon left Josephine in Paris and started his new command of the Army of Italy. Soon the French troops were winning battle after battle against the Italians and Austrians. Napoleon advanced on Vienna, Austria, and engineered the signing of a treaty that gave France control of Italy.

Napoleon returned to Paris a hero, and he soon decided to invade Egypt. He sailed from Toulon, France, in May 1798 with an

army of thirty-five thousand men. With only a few losses, all of lower Egypt came under Napoleon's control. He set about reorganizing the government, the postal service, and the system for collecting taxes. He also helped build new hospitals for the poor. However, at this time a group of countries had banded together to oppose France. Austrian and Russian forces had regained control of almost all of Italy. Then, in August 1798, the British destroyed French ships in the Battle of the Nile, leaving the French army cut off from its homeland. Napoleon left the army under the command of General Jean Kléber and returned to France with a handful of officers.

Leadership of France

Landing at Fréjus, France, in October 1799, Napoleon went directly to Paris, where he helped overthrow the Directory, a five-man executive body that had replaced the king. Napoleon was named first consul, or head of the government, and he received almost unlimited powers. After Austria and England ignored his calls for peace, he led an army into Italy and defeated the Austrians in the Battle of Marengo (1800). This brought Italy back under French control. The Treaty of Amiens in March 1802 ended the war with England for the time being. Napoleon also restored harmony between the Roman Catholic Church and the French government. He improved conditions within France as well by, among other things, establishing the Bank of France, reorganizing education, and reforming France's legal system with a new set of laws known as the Code Napoleon.

By 1802 the popular Napoleon was given the position of first consul for life, with

the right to name his replacement. In 1804 he had his title changed to emperor. War resumed after a new coalition was formed against France. In 1805 the British destroyed French naval power in the Battle of Trafalgar. Napoleon, however, was able to defeat Russia and Austria in the Battle of Austerlitz. In 1806 Napoleon's forces destroyed the Prussian army; after the Russians came to the aid of Prussia and were defeated themselves, Alexander I (1777–1825) of Russia made peace at Tilsit in June 1807. Napoleon was now free to reorganize western and central Europe as he pleased. After Sweden was defeated in 1808 with Russia's help, only England remained to oppose Napoleon.

Napoleon was unable to invade England because of its superior naval forces. He decided to introduce the Continental System, a blockade designed to close all the ports of Europe to British trade. He hoped this would force the British to make peace on French terms. In Spain in 1808 the Peninsular War broke out over Spanish opposition to the placement of Napoleon's brother Joseph on the throne. The English helped Spain in this battle, which kept French troops occupied until 1814. In addition, Alexander I's decision to end Russia's cooperation with the Continental System led Napoleon to launch an invasion of that country in 1812. Lack of supplies, cold weather, and disease led to the deaths of five hundred thousand of Napoleon's troops.

Fall from glory

Napoleon had his marriage to Josephine dissolved and then, in March 1810, he married Marie Louise, the daughter of Emperor Francis II of Austria. Despite this union, Aus-

tria declared war on him in 1813. In March 1814 Paris fell to a coalition made up of Britain, Prussia, Sweden, and Austria. Napoleon stepped down in April. Louis XVIII (1755–1824), the brother of Louis XVI, was placed on the French throne. Napoleon was exiled to the island of Elba, but after ten months he made plans to return to power. He landed in southern France in February 1815 with 1,050 soldiers and marched to Paris, where he reinstated himself to power. Louis XVIII fled, and Napoleon's new reign began. The other European powers gathered to oppose him, and Napoleon was forced to return to war.

The Battle of Waterloo was over within a week. On June 18, 1815, the combined British and Prussian armies defeated Napoleon. He returned to Paris and stepped down for a second time on June 22. He had held power for exactly one hundred days. Napoleon at first planned to go to America, but he surrendered to the British on July 3. He was sent into exile on the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic Ocean. There he spent his remaining years until he died of cancer on May 5, 1821.

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OGDEN NASH

Born: August 19, 1902

Rye, New York

Died: May 19, 1971

Baltimore, Maryland

American poet and writer

Ogden Nash was one of the most commercially successful English-language poets of the twentieth century.

Early years and education

Frederick Ogden Nash was born in Rye, New York, to Edmund Strudwick Nash and Mattie Chenault on August 19, 1902. His father was in the import-export business, but the Nash family's ancestry in North Carolina stretched back to the American Revolutionary era; the city of Nashville, Tennessee, was named in honor of an ancestor. Nash grew up in various East Coast communities and also lived in Savannah, Georgia, during his youth. He attended St. George's School in Newport, Rhode Island, and he was accepted to Harvard but dropped out in 1921 after a year.

Nash held a variety of jobs but none for very long. He worked on Wall Street as a bond salesperson, but sold only one bond—to his godmother—and instead spent his afternoons in movie theaters. He was a schoolteacher for a year at St. George's School, and from there he was hired as an advertising copywriter for streetcar signs. In 1925 he was hired in the marketing department of the Doubleday publishing house and did well enough that he moved on to its editorial department as a manuscript reader.



Ogden Nash.

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Begins writing verse

Nash said that it was the poor quality of the manuscripts he read that led him to try to write. He attempted to produce serious verse in the style of the eighteenth-century Romantic poets but soon gave it up. He preferred to scribble comic verse on pages that he crumpled and tossed across the office to the desks of coworkers. This led Nash and a friend named Joseph Alger to work together to produce a 1925 children's book, *The Cricket of Carador*. A few years later, Nash teamed with two Doubleday coworkers to produce *Born in a Beer Garden; or, She Troupes to Conquer*, which made fun of classic literature.

In 1930 Nash wrote a poem called "Spring Comes to Murray Hill" and submitted it to the *New Yorker*, one of the most respected, well-read magazines of the day. Nash had thought up the poem while gazing out his office window and thinking about his life. The *New Yorker* published the poem and invited Nash to submit more; his regular appearances in the magazine led to a contract for his first work, *Hard Lines*, published in 1931. It was a tremendous success, going into seven printings in its first year alone. Nash soon quit his Doubleday job.

Successful formula

During the 1930s and 1940s, Nash's poems continued to appear in many magazines and published collections, and he was praised as one of America's greatest humorists (writers of clever humor). He found great success with his ability to express disbelief and dismay at the problems of modern American life. He also criticized religious preaching and pompous (having to do with showing self-importance) senators and presented amusing quirks (particular or unusual characteristics) of the English language. Still, he referred to himself simply as a "worsifier" instead of a "versifier." British reviews of his work often criticized him for taking liberties with spelling and rhyme. One of his most famous examples is the line: "If called by a panther/Don't anther."

In 1931 Nash married Frances Rider Leonard, with whom he had two daughters. His experiences with fatherhood provided more subject matter for his verse, evident in the 1936 collection *The Bad Parents' Garden of Verse*. Nash also wrote screenplays for three Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer films—*The Firefly*

(1937), *The Shining Hair* (1938), and *The Feminine Touch* (1941). In California he met another well-known writer, S. J. Perelman (1904–1979), who had written for the Marx Brothers films. They worked together on a musical, *One Touch of Venus*, which was a huge success on Broadway in 1943.

Later years

Nash was elected to both the American Academy of Arts and Sciences and National Institute of Arts and Letters. During the 1950s he wrote more frequently for the children's market, with such titles as *The Boy Who Laughed at Santa Claus* (1957), *Custard the Dragon* (1959), and *Girls are Silly* (1962). He also wrote for television productions of *Peter and the Wolf* and *The Sorcerer's Apprentice*. He often wrote about his experiences babysitting his grandchildren. After suffering various illnesses in his later years, he wrote a number of poems about the medical establishment that were later collected in 1970's *Bed Riddance: A Posy for the Indisposed*.

Nash died on May 19, 1971. Several collections of his work were published after his death, including *I Wouldn't Have Missed It* (1975) and *A Penny Saved Is Impossible* (1981).

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NEFERTITI

Born: c. 1390 B.C.E.

Thebes, Egypt

Died: c. 1360 B.C.E.

Egypt

Egyptian queen

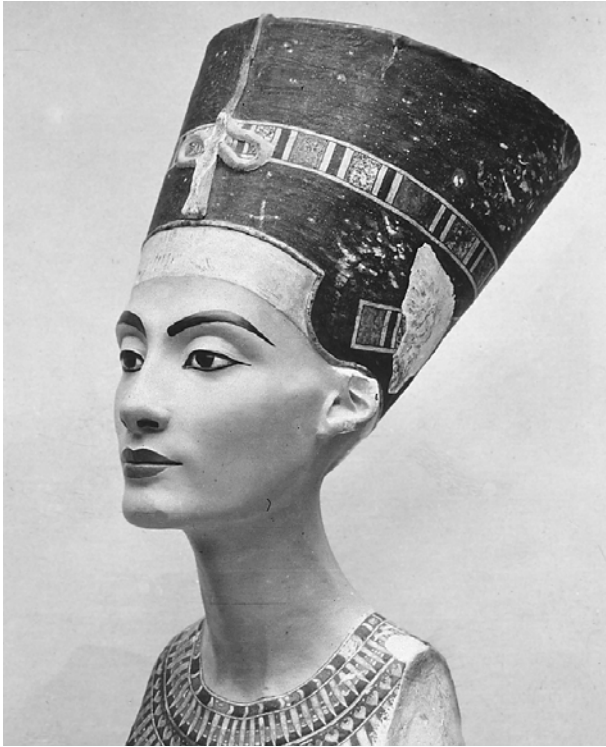
Nefertiti was an Egyptian queen and wife of King Akhenaten who remains a mystery to scholars today. A bust (sculpture of a person's head and shoulders) of her discovered in 1913 is one of the most widely recognized symbols of ancient Egypt.

Few facts known

Nefertiti was born around 1390 B.C.E. Some believe she was of Egyptian blood, while others believe she was a foreign princess. Her name, which means "the beautiful one is come," is of Egyptian origin, and evidence indicates that she had an Egyptian wet-nurse or governess of noble rank, which has led to the belief that she was born within the circle of the Egyptian royal court. She may have been a niece or daughter of Ay, who was a keeper of records under King Amenhotep III.

As queen

When Nefertiti was fifteen years old, she married Amenhotep IV, who was a year older and became king upon his father's death. They had six daughters and, according to some, one son. During the first five years of Amenhotep's reign, Nefertiti enjoyed a high profile. Evidence of her political importance is seen in the large number of carved scenes in which she is shown accompanying him during ceremonial acts. She is shown taking part in the daily worship and making offerings



Nefertiti.

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similar to those of the king—acts quite unlike those usually performed by previous chief queens, all of whom had a secondary role.

In the fifth year of his reign, Amenhotep changed his name to Akhenaten. He went against the beliefs of previous kings by announcing that the sun god Aten was the greatest of all Egyptian gods and the only one who should be worshipped, rather than Amen-Ra, who had long been considered supreme. Nefertiti shared his belief. Largely because of opposition over this issue, Akhenaten built a new capital called Akhetaten and moved the royal family there.

Mysterious disappearance

After the fourteenth year of Akhenaten's rule, there are no more pictures of Nefertiti; she simply disappears from view. Some believe she was the power behind the throne and thus responsible for the changes during the rule of Akhenaten until being dismissed from her position and banished to the North Palace at Amarna. This would mean there was a conflict within the royal family, with Nefertiti favoring the continued worship of Aten while Akhenaten and his son-in-law Tutankhamen (c. 1370–c. 1352 B.C.E.) supported a return to the worship of Amen-Ra. Most scholars, however, now suppose that Nefertiti's disappearance may simply be due to the fact that she died, and one of the king's other wives took her place at his side. A more dramatic, if less accepted, theory holds that she assumed a new, masculine identity toward the end of Akhenaten's rule—that Nefertiti and the young Smenkhkare, who ruled briefly either with or after Akhenaten and is believed by some to have been his son, were in fact the same person.

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ISAAC
NEWTON

Born: December 25, 1642

Woolsthorpe, Lincolnshire, England

Died: March 20, 1727

London, England

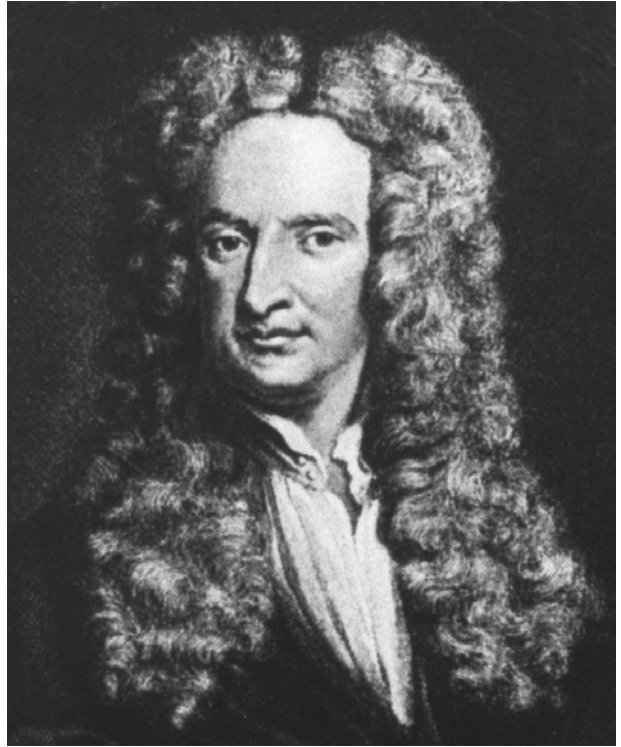
English scientist and mathematician

Isaac Newton was an English scientist and mathematician. He made major contributions in mathematics and physics (the study of the relationship between matter and energy) and advanced the work of previous scientists on the laws of motion, including the law of gravity.

Early life and education

Isaac Newton was born on Christmas Day, 1642, at Woolsthorpe, a village in south-western Lincolnshire, England. His father died two months before he was born. When he was three years old, his mother remarried and moved away, leaving Isaac in the care of his grandmother. After a basic education in local schools, at the age of twelve he was sent to the King's School in Grantham, England, where he lived in the home of a pharmacist (one who prepares and distributes medication) named Clark. Newton was interested in Clark's chemical library and laboratory and built mechanical devices to amuse Clark's daughter, including a windmill run by a live mouse, floating lanterns, and sun dials.

After Newton's stepfather died, his mother returned to Woolsthorpe, and she pulled him out of school to help run the family farm. He preferred reading to working, though, and it became apparent that farming was not his destiny. At the age of nineteen he entered Trinity College, Cambridge, England. After receiving his bachelor's degree in 1665, Newton stayed on for his master's, but an outbreak of the plague (a highly infectious and deadly disease often carried by rats)



Isaac Newton.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

caused the university to close. Newton returned to Woolsthorpe for eighteen months, from 1666 to 1667, during which time he performed the basic experiments and did the thinking for his later work on gravitation (the attraction the mass of the Earth has for bodies near its surface) and optics (the study of light and the changes it experiences and produces). The story that a falling apple suggested the idea of gravitation to him seems to be true. Newton also developed his own system of calculus (a form of mathematics used to solve problems in physics).

Returning to Cambridge in 1667, Newton quickly completed the requirements for his master's degree and then began a period

of expanding on the work he had started at Woolsthorpe. His mathematics professor, Isaac Barrow, was the first to recognize Newton's unusual ability. When Barrow resigned to take another job in 1669, he recommended that Newton take his place. Newton became a professor of mathematics at age twenty-seven and stayed at Trinity in that capacity for twenty-seven years.

Experiments in optics

Newton's main interest at the time was optics, and for several years his lectures were devoted to the subject. His experiments in this area had grown out of his interest in improving the effectiveness of telescopes (instruments that enable the user to view distant objects through the bending of light rays through a lens). His discoveries about the nature and properties of light had led him to turn to suggestions for a reflecting telescope rather than current ones based on the refractive (bending) principle. Newton built several reflecting models in which the image was viewed in a concave (rounded like the inside of a bowl) mirror through an eyepiece in the side of the tube. In 1672 he sent one of these to the Royal Society (Great Britain's oldest organization of scientists).

Newton was honored when the members of the Royal Society were impressed by his reflecting telescope and when they elected him to their membership. But when he decided to send the society a paper describing his experiments on light and the conclusions he had drawn from them, the results almost changed history for the worst. The paper was published in the society's *Philosophical Transactions*. Many scientists refused to accept the findings, and others

were strongly opposed to conclusions that seemed to show that popular theories of light were false. At first Newton patiently answered his critics with further explanations, but when these produced more criticism, he became angry. He vowed he would never publish again, even threatening to give up science altogether. Several years later, at the urging of the astronomer Edmund Halley (c. 1656–1743), Newton put together the results of his work on the laws of motion, which became the great *Principia*.

His major work

Newton's greatest work, *Philosophiae naturalis principia mathematica*, was completed in eighteen months. It was first published in Latin in 1687, when Newton was forty-five. Its appearance established him as the leading scientist of his time, not only in England but in the entire Western world. In the *Principia* Newton, with the law of universal gravitation, gave mathematical solutions to most of the problems relating to motion with which earlier scientists had struggled.

In the years after Newton's election to the Royal Society, the thinking of his peers and of scholars had been slowly developing along lines similar to those which his had taken, and they were more open to his explanations of the behavior of bodies moving according to the laws of motion than they had been to his theories about the nature of light. Yet the *Principia*'s mathematical form made it difficult for even the sharpest minds to follow. Those who did understand it saw that it needed to be made easier to read. As a result, in the years from 1687 to Newton's death, the *Principia* was the subject of many books and articles attempting to better explain Newton's ideas.

London years

After the publication of the *Principia*, Newton became depressed and lost interest in scientific matters. He became interested in university politics and was elected a representative of the university in Parliament. Later he asked friends in London to help him obtain a government appointment. The result was that in 1696, at the age of fifty-four, he left Cambridge to become warden and then master of the Mint (place where money is printed or manufactured). Newton took the job just as seriously as he had his scientific pursuits and made changes in the English money system that were effective for over one hundred years.

Newton's London life lasted as long as his professorship. He received many honors, including the first knighthood given for scientific achievement and election to life presidency of the Royal Society. In 1704 he published the *Opticks*, mainly a collection of earlier research, which he revised (changed) three times. In later years he supervised two updated versions of the *Principia*, he carried on a correspondence with scientists all over Great Britain and Europe, he continued his study and investigation in various fields, and, until his very last years, he performed his duties at the Mint.

His Opticks

The *Opticks* was written and originally published in English rather than Latin, and as a result it reached a wide range of readers in England. The reputation the *Principia* had prepared the way for the success of Newton's second published work. Also, its content and manner of presentation made the *Opticks* more approachable. It contained an account of experiments performed by Newton him-

self and his conclusions drawn from them, and it had greater appeal for the experimentally minded public of the time than the more mathematical *Principia*.

Of great interest for scientists were the questions with which Newton concluded the text of the *Opticks*—for example, “Do not Bodies act upon Light at a distance, and by their action bend its rays?” These make up a unique expression of Newton's ideas; posing them as negative (incorrect) questions made it possible for him to suggest ideas that he could not support by experimental evidence or mathematical proof, paving the way for further research by future scientists.

Later years

Two other areas to which Newton devoted much attention were chronology (the science of assigning to events their proper dates) and theology (the study of religion). His *Chronology of Ancient Kingdoms*, published in full after his death, attempts to link Egyptian, Greek, and Hebrew history and myths and to establish dates of historical events. In his *Observations upon the Prophecies of Daniel and the Apocalypse of St. John*, his aim was to show that the predictions of the Old and New Testaments had so far come true.

Newton died on March 20, 1727. His surviving writings and letters reveal a person with tremendous powers of concentration, the ability to stand long periods of intense mental strain, and the ability to remain free of distractions. The many portraits of Newton show him as a man with natural dignity, a serious expression, and large searching eyes. He had developed a mathematical explanation of the universe and opened the door for further study. In changing from pursuit of

answers to the question “Why?” to focus upon “What?” and “How?,” he prepared the way for the age of technology (a scientific way of achieving a practical purpose).

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reader's guide

U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

for further information. A contents section lists biographees by their nationality. Nearly 750 photographs and illustrations are featured, and a general index provides quick access to the people and subjects discussed throughout *U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography*.

Special thanks

Much appreciation goes to Mary Alice Anderson, media specialist at Winona Middle School in Winona, Minnesota, and Nina Levine, library media specialist at Blue Mountain Middle School in Cortlandt Manor, New York, for their assistance in developing the entry list. Many thanks also go to the following people for their important editorial contri-

butions: Taryn Benbow-Pfalzgraf (proofreading), Jodi Essey-Stapleton (copyediting and proofing), Margaret Haerens (proofreading), Courtney Mroch (copyediting), and Theresa Murray (copyediting and indexing). Special gratitude goes to Linda Mahoney at LM Design for her excellent typesetting work and her flexible attitude.

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FRIEDRICH NIETZSCHE

Born: October 15, 1844

Röcken, Germany

Died: August 25, 1900

Weimar, Germany

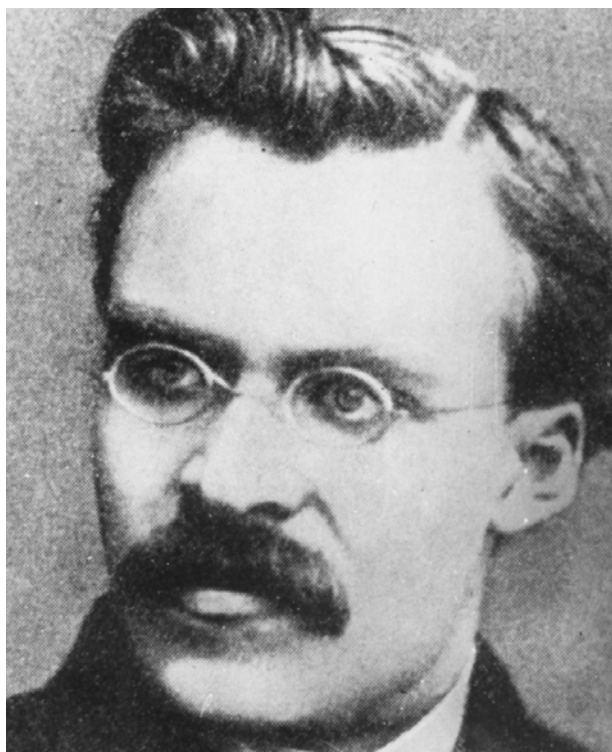
German philosopher and poet

The German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche predicted a European collapse into a time where no one could define truth and the end of man was desired. In works of powerful and beautiful prose (writing that differs from poetry in its rhythm and closeness to ordinary speech) and poetry he struggled to head off the disaster.

Early life

Friedrich Wilhelm Nietzsche was born on October 15, 1844, in Röcken, Germany, where his father served as a Lutheran pastor. Friedrich's father's death, when he was four years old, was distressing, which he often referred to in his later writings. Soon after, his youngest brother died, resulting in his mother moving her family in with her mother and two sisters. The death of both his father and his brother left Nietzsche in a household of women including his sister, Elizabeth.

After attending local schools in Naumburg, in 1858 Nietzsche won a scholarship to Pforta, one of the best boarding schools in Germany. Here he received a thorough training in the classics and acquired several life-



Friedrich Nietzsche.

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time friends. At the end of this period of schooling, Nietzsche, who had earlier shared the Lutheran religion of his family, found that he had ceased to accept Christianity—a view that soon hardened into outright disbelief in any God. With the highest recommendations of his Pforta teachers, Nietzsche enrolled in the University of Bonn in 1864.

There Nietzsche pursued classical studies with Friedrich Ritschl, and when Ritschl moved to Leipzig, Germany, Nietzsche followed him. Nietzsche attempted to enter into the social life of the students, even joining a dueling (formal combat with two people bearing weapons) club, but he soon discovered

that his sense of his own mission in life had distanced him from the pursuits and interests most students shared. At this time, too, Nietzsche apparently contracted syphilis (sexually transmitted disease) in a brothel (house where people trade sexual acts for money). The incurable disease gradually damaged his strong body. In middle life he suffered almost constantly from head and stomach upsets. Loneliness and physical pain were the constant background of his life—though Nietzsche later came to interpret them as the necessary conditions for his work.

Publications

Nietzsche's early publications in classical philology (study of literature and the languages of literature) so impressed his teacher that when a chair (professorship) of philology opened up at the university in Basel, Switzerland, Ritschl was able to secure it for Nietzsche, then only twenty-four years old and still without his degree. The University of Leipzig gave him his doctoral degree on the strength of his writings without requiring an examination. Nietzsche then entered upon a teaching career.

The composer (writer of music) Richard Wagner (1813–1883) had greatly influenced Nietzsche's first book, *The Birth of Tragedy* (1872), which gave an imaginative account of the forces that led to the rise of Greek tragedy (a drama that describes a struggle between a hero and a larger force or power with a sad or troubled ending) and to its later fall. Nietzsche's book ends with support of Wagner's musical drama as a revival of Greek tragedy. But no sooner had it been published than Nietzsche began to see the difference between Wagner's musical genius and the shabby mes-

sages of the Wagnerian cult (devoted followers of Wagner). From then on, though he still felt affection for Wagner personally, Nietzsche attacked ever more strongly the “decadence” of Wagner’s political and philosophical (having to do with knowledge) ideas. Two works of his last year of writing deal with the subject: *The Wagner Case* (1888) and *Nietzsche Contra Wagner* (1888).

Nietzsche’s teaching at Basel was interrupted frequently by prolonged bouts of sickness and by several months of service as a medical orderly during the Franco-Prussian War (1870–71; a conflict between France and the combined states of Germany, which resulted in the loss of some territory for France), which further irritated his illness. In April 1879 his health had weakened so much that he was driven to resign. He was given a small monthly income, and he now began a ten-year period of wandering in search of a friendly climate. Though having increasing pain from the ruthless progress of his disease, Nietzsche managed to produce one hundred one books before his final collapse. They belong to the first rank of German literature and contain a stimulating set of philosophical ideas.

Nietzsche’s philosophy

Nietzsche believed that European man was standing at a critical turning point. The advance of scientific enlightenment, in particular the Darwinian theory (Darwin’s theory that man evolved from primitive life forms), had destroyed the old religious ideas. In *Thus Spoke Zarathustra*, Nietzsche wrote: “God is dead.” Further, he declared that man, no longer “the image of God,” is a chance product of a nature uninterested in purpose or value.

The great danger is that man will find his existence meaningless. Unless a new grounding for values is provided, Nietzsche predicted a rapid weakening into destruction for society.

Nietzsche aimed in all his work to provide a new meaning for human existence in a meaningless world. In the absence of any religious guidance, men must create their own values. Nietzsche’s writings are either criticisms of the old system of values or attempts to form a new system. For European man, the traditions common to both Jewish and Christian religions were the source of the old values. Nietzsche attacked it head-on in such works as *A Genealogy of Morals* (1887) and *The Antichrist* (1888).

In Nietzsche’s constructive works he sought to find in life itself a force that would serve to set human existence apart. He found it in the theory of the urge to dominate and master. All creatures desire this, but only man has achieved sufficient power to turn the force back on himself. Self-mastery and self-overcoming are the qualities that give a unique value to human life. The ideal man, the “superman,” will delight in being the master of his life, measuring out his passions, and giving style to his character. His power over himself and his life will give him a flood of creative energy. This will be the new reality and the standard by which all of life is judged.

All morality (right conduct) is therefore the result of overcoming one’s self, but Nietzsche had a standard by which to tell between the morality of the superman from the morality of Christianity. Christianity is based on the concept of afterlife. It attacks the idea of being master of your life, calling that idea “pride,” and sees natural passions as evil, putting guilt and fear onto its followers.

The new morality, on the other hand, will support life, encourage self-assertion, and do away with guilt. In *Thus Spake Zarathustra* (1883) Nietzsche formed the ultimate test of the superman's statements. Confronted with the notion that the world process is cyclical (circular or in sequence) and eternal, the superman still supports life. Let it be—again and again—with all its joys and sorrows.

Last days

On January 3, 1889, Nietzsche collapsed on a street in Turin, Italy. When he regained consciousness, his sanity was gone. He began to send off wild letters to friends and strangers signed "Dionysus—the Crucified." He was taken to his mother's home and lived on in a semiconscious state, sinking ever further from the real world until his death on August 25, 1900.

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FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

Born: May 12, 1820

Florence, Italy

Died: August 13, 1910

London, England

English nurse

The English nurse Florence Nightingale was the founder of modern nursing and made outstanding contributions to the knowledge and improvement of public health.

Early years and study

Florence Nightingale was born in Florence, Italy, on May 12, 1820; she was named after the city of her birth. Her father, William E. Nightingale, was a wealthy landowner who had inherited an estate in Derbyshire, England. Like many members of the wealthy class, he and Florence's mother, Fanny, dedicated themselves to the pursuit of active social lives. Florence and her sister, Parthenope, were tutored by their father in languages, mathematics, and history. Though Florence was tempted by the idea of a brilliant social life and marriage, she also wanted to achieve independence, importance in some field of activity, and obedience to God through service to society.

In 1844 Nightingale decided that she wanted to work in hospitals. Her family objected strongly to her plan; hospital conditions at that time were known to be terrible, and nurses were untrained and thought to be of questionable morals. Ignoring all resistance, Nightingale managed to visit some hos-

pitals and health facilities. She then received permission from her parents to spend a few months at Kaiserworth, a German training school for nurses and female teachers. In 1853 she became superintendent of the London charity-supported Institution for Sick Gentlewomen in Distressed Circumstances. This opportunity allowed her to become independent from her family and also to try out new ideas in organizing and managing an institution, conducted in a scientific, nonreligious setting.

War efforts

In October of 1854 Nightingale organized a party of thirty-eight nurses, mostly from different religious orders, for service in the Crimean War (1853–56), in which Great Britain, France, and Sardinia fought against Russian expansion in Europe. The nurses arrived at Constantinople (now Istanbul, Turkey) in November. Conditions at the British base hospital at Scutari (now Uskudar, Turkey) were awful and grew steadily worse as the number of sick and wounded soldiers rapidly increased. The British army did not have enough medical services and used what it did have poorly—a confusing and complicated supply system actually cut off deliveries to the patients. The Barrack Hospital, where Nightingale and her nurses worked and lived, was built on a massive cesspool (an underground area into which liquid waste flows), which poisoned the water and even the building itself. The general attitude was that the common soldier was a drunken brute on whom all comforts would be wasted.

Nightingale saw that her first task was to get the military doctors to accept her and the other nurses. Her determined personality,



Florence Nightingale.

combined with the continuing arrival of the newly sick and wounded, soon brought this about. She also had a large fund of private money—much of it raised by the *London Times*—with which she could obtain badly needed supplies. By the end of 1854, some order had been created and the hospital was cleaner—not only through Nightingale's efforts but also through improvements made by a governmental sanitary commission. The death rate among patients fell by two-thirds. But with improvement came new problems, including anger from officials who were found at fault for the poor hospital conditions and rising disputes among the nurses.

Hospital reform efforts back home

Florence Nightingale left Scutari in the summer of 1856, soon after the war ended. By then she was famous among the troops and the public as the “Lady with the Lamp” and the “Nightingale in the East.” This popular image is not quite accurate. Although she did some active nursing in the wards, Nightingale’s real work lay outside the expression of tenderness and concern. It began with her refusal to respond to public praise and with her use of her influence in high places, including with the queen, to fight for effective reform of the entire system of military hospitals and medical care.

In *Notes on Matters Affecting the Health, Efficiency and Hospital Administration of the British Army* (1857) Nightingale used the experiences of the war to prove that a new system was necessary. Within five years this effort led to the reconstruction of the administrative structure of the War Office. Nightingale’s *Notes on Hospitals* (1859) detailed the proper arrangements for civilian institutions (places that were not a part of the military). In the next year she presided over the founding of the Nightingale School for the training of nurses at St. Thomas’s Hospital in London, England. After 1858 she was recognized as the leading expert on military and civilian sanitation (the removal of water-transported waste) in India. She also believed that irrigation (the supplying of water to an area using artificial methods) was the solution to the problem of famine. In 1907 Nightingale was the first woman to be awarded the Order of Merit.

Later years

Nightingale’s personality is well documented. She rebelled against the idle, shel-

tered existence of her family her entire life. She achieved a leading position in a world dominated by men, driving and directing her male coworkers as hard as she did herself. She often complained that women were selfish, and she had no time for the growing women’s rights movement. But she also developed an idea of spiritual (relating to or affecting the spirit) motherhood and saw herself as the mother of the men of the British army—“my children”—whom she had saved. Florence Nightingale never really recovered from the physical strain of the Crimean War. After 1861 she rarely left her home and was confined to her bed much of the time. She died on August 13, 1910, in London, England.

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**RICHARD
NIXON**

Born: January 9, 1913
Yorba Linda, California

Died: April 22, 1994

Yorba Linda, California

American president and vice president

Richard Nixon was the thirty-seventh president of the United States. He successfully served as a member of the House of Representatives and of the Senate and was vice president under Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969). Despite all his political triumphs, Nixon will probably best be remembered as the first president to resign from office.

Young Nixon in California

Richard Milhous Nixon was born on his father's lemon farm in Yorba Linda, California, on January 9, 1913. Of the four other sons in the family, two died in childhood. After the farm failed, the family moved to Whittier, California, where Nixon's father ran a grocery store. Nixon had a troubled childhood. Raised by a sometimes abusive father and a controlling mother, Nixon adopted parts of both his parents' personalities. Some historians have believed that, as a result of his childhood, Nixon had a drive to succeed and felt he had to pretend to be "good" while using any tactics necessary to achieve his goals.

At Whittier College, Nixon excelled as a student and a debater. He was president of his freshman class and, as a senior, president of the student body. Graduating second in his class in 1934, he won a scholarship to Duke University Law School. Although he was a member of the national scholastic law fraternity, he failed to find a job in one of the big New York law firms. This failure, along with the views of his father, left him with a strong dislike of the "eastern establishment."

Reluctantly, Nixon returned to Whittier and began practicing law. Soon afterward, Nixon met Thelma Catherine Patricia (Pat) Ryan (1912–1993), a high school teacher. The two were married in 1940 and would have two daughters, Patricia and Julie.

Public service, then soldier

Shortly before the United States entered World War II (1939–45), where American-led forces faced-off against Germany, Japan, and Italy, Nixon began working for the federal government in the Office of Emergency Management. Nixon soon left this post and entered the navy as a lieutenant junior-grade in August 1942. He was sent to the Pacific as an operations officer with the South Pacific Combat Air Transport Command. Fourteen months later he returned to the United States to work as a lawyer in uniform.

In September 1945 a group of Republicans in Whittier asked him to run for Congress. He jumped at the opportunity. Nixon left the navy in January 1946 and began his victorious campaign, in which he defeated a five-term congressman.

Congressional activities and national fame

As congressman, Nixon was assigned to the House Labor Committee and to the Select Committee on Foreign Aid. In 1947 he and other committee members toured Europe. Nixon quickly established a reputation as an internationalist in foreign policy, proving that he worked well with foreign nations.

As a member of the House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC), Nixon became a leading anti-Communist crusader. (Communism is a political system where

goods and services are owned and controlled by the government.) He first attracted national attention as a member of HUAC when he led the suit that resulted in the conviction of Alger Hiss (1904–1996), a former State Department official charged with Communist connections. While Nixon gained national attention fighting the threat of Communism, he also caught the attention of General Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969), who chose him as his running mate in his successful presidential campaign of 1952. Eisenhower in part recruited Nixon in hopes of drawing valuable support in the West.

The vice presidency

As vice president, Nixon continued to please his supporters and anger his critics. He acted as the chief political spokesman in Eisenhower's administration. Among Nixon's assignments was foreign travel. In office less than a year, Nixon made an extended trip through Asia, visiting, among other places, Hanoi, North Vietnam, then under French control. He established many useful relationships on these trips and impressed critics at home with his knowledge of foreign affairs.

On a trip to Latin America in 1958, he was set upon by mobs but handled himself coolly. In 1959 he visited Poland and the Soviet Union, a former Communist nation made up of Russia and other states. While in Moscow, his meeting with Soviet premier Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971) prepared the way for Khrushchev's later visit to the United States to meet with Eisenhower.

Running for president

In 1960 Nixon won the Republican presidential nomination and chose Henry Cabot

Lodge (1902–1985) as his running mate. The campaign against the Democratic team of Senators John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) and Lyndon Johnson (1908–1973) was close from the beginning. In the first of four televised debates with Kennedy, Nixon did not sharply challenge his opponent and appeared cold and distant, a far cry from the charming Kennedy. But the election was still close, and he lost by some one hundred thousand votes out of the sixty-eight million cast.

After the defeat, Nixon returned to Los Angeles to practice law. In 1964, after the Republican defeat by President Lyndon Johnson, it became clear that Nixon again considered himself a serious presidential contender. In 1968, winning his party's presidential nomination, he picked Governor Spiro T. Agnew (1918–1996) of Maryland as his running mate. Nixon and Agnew ran against the Democratic team of Hubert Humphrey (1911–1978) and Edmund Muskie (1914–). Third-party candidate George Wallace (1919–1998) of Alabama, a threat to both sides, eventually drew support away from Humphrey and cleared a path for Nixon's successful election to the White House.

The presidency

Nixon took the oath of office on January 20, 1969. In his inaugural address, or first speech as president, he appealed for harmony among American society. At that time American society was divided over the issues of domestic racial unrest and the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war in which American forces were aiding South Vietnam's fight against Communist North Vietnam). He promised to bring the nation together again.

Nixon's first foreign objective—to negotiate, or bargain for, an end to the Vietnam War—was unsuccessful. Despite repeated attempts, negotiations with North Vietnam at the Paris peace talks were unproductive. Meanwhile, in June he began replacing American troops with South Vietnamese troops. After a conference with South Vietnam president Nguyen Van Thieu (1923–2001), Nixon ordered 25,000 American combat troops brought home. By the end of 1969, having ordered 110,000 troops home, he expressed hope that all American combat troops would be out of Vietnam by the end of 1970. It would take two more years until most American ground troops had been withdrawn from Vietnam.

International relations

In his second month in office, Nixon embarked on a tour of Western Europe. His official visit to Romania made him the first American president to visit a Communist country. While on an Asian tour, the president called for cooperative efforts and promised American material aid but said that Asian countries must defend their freedoms with their own troops. In his first year, the president signed a treaty with the Soviet Union that worked toward placing limits on the production of nuclear arms.

In 1971 Nixon made the dramatic announcements that he would visit Peking, China, and Moscow, Soviet Union, in the first half of 1972. He also announced progress in the negotiations with the Soviet Union on an arms limitation treaty. The visit to Peking took place in February and he was invited to meet Chairman Mao Zedong (1893–1976), a mark of high respect.



Richard Nixon.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

The fall from grace

In the presidential election of 1972, Nixon and Agnew ran against Democrats George McGovern (1922–) and Sargent Shriver (1915–). The election was a landslide for Nixon, but no one was expecting what would happen next. During his last election campaign, what first appeared as a minor burglary was to become the beginning of the end of Nixon's political career. A break-in at Democratic national headquarters in the Watergate apartment complex in Washington, D.C., was linked to Republicans.

During the trial of six men charged in the crime, the existence of the cover-up began to emerge and government officials fell like dominos in its path. By October 1973, as the Watergate investigation continued, Nixon lost several top aides as well as his vice president. Agnew resigned before pleading no contest to federal charges of receiving bribes, failing to pay his taxes properly, and other crimes while serving as governor of Maryland.

Soon the U.S. Supreme Court forced Nixon to turn over tape recordings he made during the election. The tapes showed he obstructed, or blocked, justice in stopping a Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) probe of the Watergate burglary. On August 9, 1974, in national disgrace, he became the first president of the United States to choose to leave office before the end of his term. He boarded a plane with his wife and returned to his California home, ending his public career. A month later, in a controversial move, President Gerald Ford (1913–) issued an unconditional pardon for any offenses Nixon might have committed while president.

Private citizen

Nixon led a quiet life until the criticism from the Watergate scandal had softened. Nixon then emerged in a role of elder statesman, visiting countries in Asia as well as returning to the Soviet Union and China. He also consulted with the administrations of George Bush (1924–) and Bill Clinton (1946–) and wrote his memoirs, or a book of his memories, and other books on international affairs and politics.

The Richard M. Nixon Library and Birthplace opened in the early 1990s in

Yorba Linda. On January 20, 1994, in what would be his last public appearance, ceremonies honoring him on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his first inauguration were held. He also announced the creation of the Center for Peace and Freedom, a policy center at the Richard M. Nixon Library and Birthplace.

Richard Nixon died of a stroke on April 22, 1994. A state funeral was held five days later in Yorba Linda, where President Clinton and others praised Nixon and his achievements. However Nixon is remembered, he will most likely never escape the shadow of Watergate.

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ALFRED NOBEL

Born: October 21, 1833

Stockholm, Sweden

Died: December 10, 1896

San Remo, Italy

Swedish chemist

The Swedish chemist Alfred Nobel invented dynamite and other explosives, but he is best remembered for using the bulk of his personal fortune to create the Nobel Foundation, which awards Nobel Prizes every year to those who benefit mankind.

Early life

Alfred Bernhard Nobel was born October 21, 1833, in Stockholm, Sweden, the son of Immanuel and Andrietta Ahlsell Nobel. He was often sick as a child and had to be attended to almost constantly by his mother. He attended St. Jakob's School in Stockholm in 1841 and 1842, but then the family moved to St. Petersburg, Russia, where Nobel's father, a chemist and inventor, had established an engineering and weapons company. Nobel and his brothers received private tutoring from 1843 to 1850. In 1850 Nobel set out on a two-year tour of western Europe and the United States, learning different languages and seeking ideas and contacts in engineering. Russia's involvement in the Crimean War (1853–56) led to great profits for Nobel's father's company, but after the war ended, weapons contracts were cancelled, and Nobel's father soon lost all of his money.

Explosive discoveries

Alfred Nobel remained in Russia when his father returned to Stockholm in 1858. Both were doing studies of nitroglycerin, a violent explosive liquid. In 1863 Alfred rejoined his father, and in that year he succeeded in exploding nitroglycerin at will by using gunpowder to set it off. In 1865 he introduced the use of exploding mercury to provide the charge for the blast, and this turned out to be the key to all the later high explosives. Nobel patented his invention and traveled around trying to cash in on it. Factories built to manufacture nitroglycerin were established near Stockholm and Hamburg, Germany, and the explosive oil was shipped around the world. In 1866 Nobel visited the United States and built factories in New York and San Francisco, California.

Meanwhile, in Europe, the Nobel companies faced growing criticism, arising from the many accidental explosions that happened when nitroglycerin was being moved or stored. Nobel had expected these problems. As early as 1864 he had tried using different solids to absorb the dangerous liquid, including kieselguhr (a light material made from the remains of certain kinds of algae, a type of plant that grows in water). This material reduced the blasting power slightly, and the resulting product was solid, plastic, and better able to withstand physical or temperature shock. This was dynamite, patented in 1867. The new invention was heavily promoted, and a worldwide industry was established.

After moving the company headquarters and laboratory to Paris, France, in 1870, Nobel continued to work toward developing other explosives. These included ballistite, which was created in 1887 in response to the military



Alfred Nobel.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

demand for a smokeless, slow-burning blasting powder. This was Nobel's last major invention, but throughout his life he improved on all of his creations in detail, patented them, and then left them to his companies, with which he had as little formal contact as possible.

Used fortune to benefit humanity

From 1865 to 1873 Nobel lived in Hamburg and then in Paris until 1891, when the use of ballistite by the Italian military made him unpopular there. He moved to San Remo, Italy, where he died on December 10, 1896. He was a truly international figure, traveling constantly. For all of his achieve-

ments, he was a reserved and shy man who hated publicity. He had taken care of his mother his whole life and never married.

Nobel's will directed that the bulk of his huge estate should fund annual prizes for those who, in the previous year, had most benefited mankind in five specified subjects: physics (the study of the relationship between matter and energy), chemistry, medicine, literature, and peace. His will was settled within four years, and the Nobel Foundation was created. A Nobel Prize is one of the highest honors that an individual can receive. Each winner receives a gold medal, a scroll, and a cash award based on the earnings of the foundation's investments during that year. Recent prizes have been around one million dollars each.

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ISAMU
NOGUCHI

Born: November 17, 1904
Los Angeles, California

Died: December 30, 1988

New York, New York

Asian American sculptor

Isamu Noguchi was a well-respected and admired Japanese American sculptor and designer. His sculptures, fountains, and gardens are focal points in major cities of the United States and worldwide.

Noguchi's youth

Isamu Noguchi was born to Isamu Noguchi and Leonie Gilmore on November 17, 1904, in Los Angeles, California. His father, a Japanese poet and authority on art, and his mother, an American writer, were never married. In 1906 he moved with his family to Japan, where his father married a Japanese woman, and Noguchi remained with his mother until he was thirteen years old. In 1918, his mother sent him back to the United States to finish his education. He went to public school in La Porte, Indiana, graduating in 1922. He became an apprentice (a person working to learn a trade) to Gutzon Borglum (1867–1941), the sculptor of Mount Rushmore, who told Noguchi he was not talented enough to be a sculptor. Thus, in 1923, Noguchi enrolled as a premedical student at Columbia University in New York City.

Prophet of his age

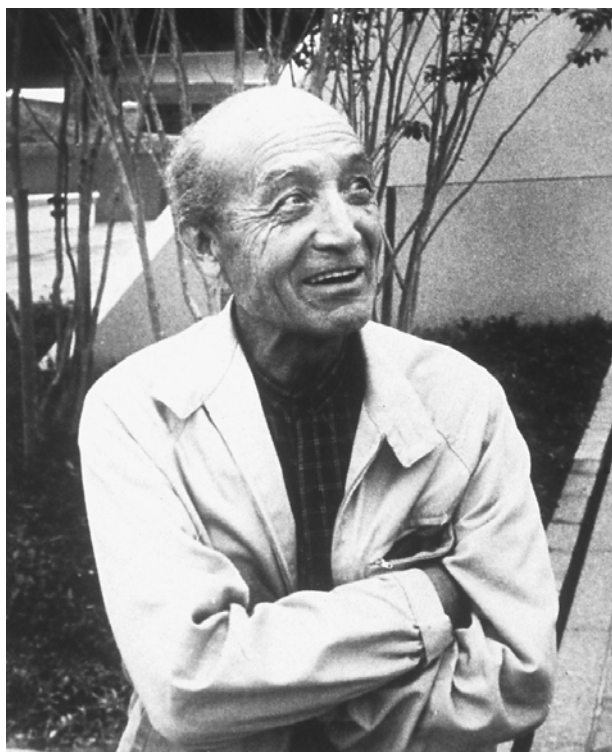
In 1925 Noguchi, at the urging of his mother, enrolled at the Leonardo da Vinci Art School in New York City to study sculpture. Here his talents were recognized and encouraged. Noguchi also attended the East Side Art School in New York City. In 1927 he won a scholarship and moved to Paris, France, where he was an apprentice to abstract scul-

tor Constantin Brancusi (1876–1957) who became a strong influence on Noguchi's art. Noguchi felt that this art form was one that was well suited to his way of expressing himself in his work.

Noguchi lived in Japan for six months in 1930, working with clay and studying gardens. There he realized land could be sculpture that could be put to public use. In the 1930s he made art reflecting his social concerns, including a cement mural, 72 feet long, in Mexico City, Mexico, narrating Mexican history. In 1935 he began making stage sets for dancer Martha Graham (1893–1991), a partnership that would continue for fifty years. Throughout his career, Noguchi also worked with other choreographers (people who develop the dance steps and dances used in performances). In 1938 he made his first sculpture in stainless steel, a symbol of freedom of the press at the entrance to the Associated Press building in Rockefeller Center, New York City.

Power in stone

Noguchi enjoyed occasional exhibitions throughout the United States, Europe, and Asia. Among his important group shows was the exhibition of "14 Americans" at the Museum of Modern Art, New York City, in 1946. A return trip to Japan in 1949 prompted Noguchi to begin direct carving in stone. He also traveled throughout the world, and his work was purchased by many important museums. His only marriage, to actress Yoshiko Yamaguchi, lasted from 1951 to 1955. In 1968 the Whitney Museum of American Art sponsored a show featuring his work, and in 1978 the Walker Art Center exhibited his show *Imaginary Landscapes*.



Isamu Noguchi.

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Connection with nature

Noguchi's forms seem to suggest nature and human beings interacting with one another or with their surroundings. Like Brancusi, Noguchi always retained in his pieces a strong feeling for the perfection of the material from which they are made. His preference was generally for wood or stone, and he was talented in making use of these materials in a way that showed them at their best.

Noguchi's work was also richly inspired by European surrealism (art that demonstrates the imagination and uses distorted images) and abstraction (art that does not resemble any real object). His experiences in

Asia gifted him with a unique ability for garden and courtyard design. Among his many important creations: a fountain and sculpture for the John Hancock Building, New York City; a garden for the UNESCO Headquarters, Paris (1956–1958); the Billy Rose Garden of Sculpture at the Israel National Museum, Jerusalem (1960–1965); a sunken garden at Yale University (1960–1964); and the 1968 *Red Cube*, a steel sculpture on Broadway in New York City.

Creative to the end

In 1982 Noguchi was awarded the Edward MacDowell Medal for outstanding lifetime contribution to the arts. In 1984, Noguchi's memorial to Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790), the *Bolt of Lightning*, a 102-foot stainless steel sculpture, was installed in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. In 1985 the Isamu Noguchi Garden Museum, displaying more than two hundred of his works, opened in Queens, New York.

In 1986, Noguchi ended his long career with a playful signature as the U.S. representative to the Venice Biennale art exposition. His exhibition of sculpture and lamps included the *Slide Mantra*, a religious-looking marble sculpture which visitors could climb up and slide down.

Noguchi was best known for sculpture, but he worked in many other mediums, including painting, ceramics, interior design, and architecture. His fountains grace several cities. In every work, he remained deeply attuned to his material and sensitive to its connection to nature and to society.

Isamu Noguchi died on December 30, 1988, in New York City.

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MANUEL NORIEGA

Born: February 11, 1934

Panama City, Panama

Panamanian military leader

First a friend, then an enemy of the United States, Manuel Noriega, the strongman of Panama, was finally taken down by a U.S. military operation, captured, and brought to Miami for trial on drug charges in 1989.

Early life

Manuel Antonio Noriega was born the son of an accountant and his maid in a poor section of Panama City, Panama, in 1934. At the age of five he was given up for adoption to a schoolteacher. He attended the National Institute, a well-regarded high school, with the intention of becoming a doctor, but his family could not afford to send him to medical school. Instead, Noriega accepted a scholarship to attend the Chorrillos Military

Academy in Peru. He graduated in 1962 with a degree in engineering. Returning to Panama, he became a sublieutenant in the National Guard.

Military career

Colonel Omar Torrijos (1929–1981) liked Noriega and obtained for him the command of Chiriqui, the country's westernmost province. In October 1968, they led a military takeover of the government of President Arnulfo Arias. Noriega's troops seized radio and telephone stations in the city of David, cutting off communications with Panama City. Torrijos emerged as the major figure in the new government. In December 1969, when Torrijos was out of the country, a trio of officers tried to seize power. Torrijos flew his plane into an airport in David that had no lights for night landing. Noriega lined up cars along the runway with their lights on to help Torrijos make it down safely. With Noriega's troops at his service, Torrijos reclaimed the capital.

From that moment, Noriega's career blossomed. He became involved with U.S. intelligence activities. In 1971 he went to Havana, Cuba, at the request of U.S. president Richard Nixon (1911–1994) to obtain the release of crewmen of two American ships seized by Fidel Castro's (1927–) government. At this time Noriega was already involved in drug deals. A high-ranking drug enforcement officer recommended that President Nixon order Noriega's assassination, but Nixon did not follow through. As head of G-2, Panama's military intelligence command, Noriega was the second most powerful man in Panama. In 1975 G-2 agents rounded up businessmen who criticized Torrijos, took away their property, and sent



Manuel Noriega.

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them into exile in Ecuador. Torrijos once said of Noriega, "This is my gangster."

Increase in power

Torrijos died in 1981 in an unexplained plane crash. In the following two-year contest for power between politicians and military officers, Noriega emerged as the winner. In late 1983, following his promotion to general and commander of the National Guard, the guard was combined with the navy and air force into the Panama Defense Forces (which also included the national police). The following year Noriega's choice for president, Nicolás Ardito Barletta, won a narrow

victory over Arnulfo Arias. But Barletta failed to improve the country's weak economy (system of production, distribution, and use of goods and services), and Noriega forced him out. Noriega at this time began to be suspected of gun trafficking (smuggling), money laundering, torture, murder, and selling U.S. information and technology to Cuba and Eastern European governments. Noriega denied wrongdoing and said U.S. politicians were looking for a way to undo the Panama Canal treaties before the canal became Panamanian property on December 31, 1999.

In June 1987 Noriega's former chief of staff, Colonel Roberto Diaz Herrera, stated that Noriega had fixed the 1984 election and ordered the killing of Hugo Spadafora, who had publicly accused Noriega of drug trafficking. Herrera also said Noriega had been involved in Torrijos's death. Panamanians organized protests demanding the removal of Noriega. He responded by declaring a national emergency. He suspended constitutional rights, closed newspapers and radio stations, and drove his political enemies into exile. Herrera was captured and ordered to recant (take back) his statements. Church leaders, businessmen, and students organized into the National Civil Crusade, dressed in white, and went into the streets banging pots and pans. The riot squads drove them away.

United States steps in

By now Americans were outraged, and in June 1987 the U.S. Senate called for Noriega's removal. The administration of President Ronald Reagan (1911–) began looking for a way to bring Noriega down. The U.S. economic and military assistance ended, Panamanian bankers began withdrawing their

support, and Noriega quickly lost favor everywhere except for the Panama Defense Forces (PDF). Secret talks were held between U.S. officials and Noriega's representatives calling for him to resign and leave the country before the 1988 U.S. presidential election, saving George Bush (1924–), who as director of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) had dealt with Noriega, from embarrassment. The Justice Department filed charges against Noriega in federal court in early 1988 as a warning. Assistant Secretary of State Eliot Abrams went to Panama to get President Eric Del Valle to fire Noriega. Instead, Noriega forced out Del Valle and named a new president.

After taking over as president, Bush increased the pressure. In May 1989 Noriega decided not to run in the election but backed another candidate, Carlos Duque. The opposition Panameñista Party nominated Guillermo Endara, who was immediately provided with \$10 million by the Bush administration. Even though the election was being watched by former President Jimmy Carter (1924–) and other foreign officials, as soon as Noriega realized that Duque was losing, he ordered the PDF to seize ballot boxes. When the opposition took to the streets in protest, Noriega's squads beat them. Endara and a vice presidential candidate, Guillermo Ford, lost the election.

Last straw

Noriega declared the election void (having no legal force or effect), installed another president, and, in October 1989, survived a takeover attempt supported by U.S. forces. To improve the nation's international image and to prevent Noriega from naming one of his people as administrator of the Panama

Canal, Bush took stronger action. Using as an excuse the firing on U.S. soldiers passing the PDF headquarters and Noriega's statement that U.S. actions had created a state of war, the United States launched a full-scale attack (Operation Just Cause) with twenty-four thousand troops on December 20, 1989.

Fighting continued for four days, with the United States losing hundreds of troops and the Panamanians losing thousands. Noriega escaped capture for a few days but was found hiding in the Papal Nunciature, a religious office. Under pressure from Vatican officials, Noriega surrendered to the Vatican Embassy in Panama City on January 3, 1990. In a deal worked out with the U.S.-created government headed by Guillermo Endara, U.S. authorities brought Noriega to Miami for trial, which was delayed into the early 1990s. He was convicted of several crimes including cocaine smuggling. He was sentenced to forty years in a Miami prison and ordered to pay \$44 million to the Panamanian government. In 1999 a French court sentenced Noriega and his wife to ten years in jail along with a \$33 million fine. Also in 1999 the Panamanian high court announced that it would seek to have Noriega returned to that country to make sure he served time there for murder.

In 2002 a parole hearing took place in Miami, which resulted in Noriega's denial for early release from his U.S. prison sentence. He would remain in prison in the United States for at least five more years.

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JESSYE NORMAN

Born: September 15, 1945

Augusta, Georgia

African American opera singer

Jessye Norman is an African American opera singer. Her rich soprano voice covers an uncommonly wide range, from classical to modern compositions.

Early years

Jessye Norman was born on September 15, 1945, in Augusta, Georgia. Her father, Silas, was an insurance broker and her mother, Janie, was a schoolteacher. There were four other children in the family. Music was very important in the family, and all the children took piano lessons at a young age. Her parents encouraged Jessye musically, and she began singing in church choirs at the age of four.

Norman's first step toward a singing career, taken at the suggestion of her high school chorus teacher, was to enter the Marion Anderson vocal competition in Philadel-

phia, Pennsylvania, at age sixteen. She did not win the competition, but her singing did gain her a full scholarship to Howard University in Washington, D.C. Norman fell in love with opera the first time she heard a Metropolitan Opera radio broadcast. "I was nine and didn't know what was going on, but I just loved it," she told Charles Michner of *Vanity Fair* magazine.

Debuts

Norman, to finance her graduate studies, entered the 1968 International Music Competition of the German Broadcasting Corporation in Munich, Germany, and took first prize. This famous award gave her immediate wide recognition and engagements throughout Germany leading to a December 1969 debut with the Deutsche Oper in Berlin, Germany. Norman had always been selective about her repertoire (a list of operas prepared for performance). She followed her own instincts and interests more than the advice of her teachers or requests of her management. This tendency put her at odds with the Deutsche Oper and forced her to seek out musical works on her own that she felt were more suitable to her vocal skills.

Norman's search took her to Italy, where she sang in Florence in the spring of 1970. In April of 1972 she made her debut at Milan's famous opera house, La Scala, in the title role of Verdi's *Aida*. Her first well-publicized American performance took place that summer in a concert performance of the same role at the Hollywood Bowl. Later in 1972 Norman further established herself in the United States with an all-Wagner concert at the Tanglewood Festival in Lennox, Massachusetts, and a recital tour of the country. That Septem-

ber she made her London, England, debut at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden.

Travels

During the years from 1973 to 1975 Norman performed throughout the Western world—in Spain, Holland, Germany, Scotland, Italy, England, France, and Argentina, as well as the United States—and often performed works outside the standard repertoire.

In 1975 Norman moved to London and had no staged opera appearances for the next five years. While her reason for the withdrawal was that she needed to fully develop her voice, others felt that this was a period of concern for her weight and thus her stage image. She told John Gruen of the *New York Times*, “As for my voice, it cannot be categorized. I like so many different kinds of music that I’ve never allowed myself the limitations of one particular range.”

In October of 1980 Norman returned to the operatic stage in the title role of Richard Strauss’s (1864–1949) *Ariadne auf Naxos* at the Hamburger Staatsoper in Hamburg, Germany. In 1982 she appeared in her American stage debut with the Philadelphia Opera as Dido in Henry Purcell’s (1659–1695) *Dido and Aeneas* and as Jocasta in Igor Stravinsky’s (1882–1971) *Oedipus Rex*. Her debut at New York’s Metropolitan Opera took place in September of 1983. She sang at the January 21, 1985, inauguration of President Ronald Reagan (1911–), an invitation that she debated as an African American, as a Democrat, and as a nuclear disarmament activist. But she did accept and sang the folk song “Simple Gifts.”

Although Norman was concerned about her stage image, she often managed to con-



Jessye Norman.

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vert her large size to a positive advantage by choosing roles that called for stately and dignified bearing.

Honors and recent work

Among the numerous honors bestowed upon Norman were: *Musical America*’s musician of the year, 1982; honorary doctorates from Howard University (1982), Boston Conservatory of Music (1984), University of the South (1984), and Harvard University (1998). She was given the honor of being named Commandeur de l’Ordre des Arts et des Lettres from the French government, 1984. She also received awards for many of her recordings.

Norman's work in the 1990s included singing at the opening of the Metropolitan Opera's production of *Ariadne auf Naxos* in 1993, taking part at a gala for the New York Philharmonic in 1995, and appearing at concerts throughout the world.

In March 1997, Jessye Norman was honored by New York City's Associated Black Charities at the eleventh annual Black History Makers Awards Dinner for her contributions to the arts and to African American culture. Norman made her first appearance in Russia in 2001. She sang at the "Tribute in Light" memorial ceremony in New York City to honor those people who died in the destruction of the World Trade Center on September 11, 2001.

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NOSTRADAMUS

Born: December 1503

Saint-Remy-de-Provence, France

Died: July 1566

Salon, France

French astrologer, physician, and author

Nostradamus was a physician (doctor) and astrologer (someone who believes that the future can be learned by studying the stars and planets). Today Nostradamus is remembered chiefly for the predictions he made of future events.

Early years

Michel de Notredame, commonly called Nostradamus, was born in December 1503 in the south of France. His family was of Jewish heritage but had converted to Catholicism during a period of religious intolerance (unwillingness to give freedom to people who have different beliefs) and prejudice (hostility aimed at a person or group of people based on their beliefs, looks, or habits). Both of his grandfathers were scholars and instructed Nostradamus themselves when he was young. One grandfather was a physician. The other taught him classical languages.

At the age of fourteen Nostradamus left his family to study in Avignon, France, a major ecclesiastical (church related) and academic center. In class he often voiced dissension (disagreement) with the teachings of the Catholic priests. Nostradamus later attended the University of Montpellier, where he studied both medicine and astrology. It was common to study both at that time. He graduated in 1522 and began calling himself Nostradamus, a Latin version of his name. This was a common practice of university graduates.

The first several years of Nostradamus's career as a doctor were spent traveling in France. Many towns and villages were being destroyed by the bubonic plague (a widespread destructive disease). It was called "Le Charbon" ("coal" or "carbon") because of the

black sores it left on its victim's body. The epidemic (a disease that affects a large number of people or regions) had no cure. Doctors commonly "bled" (letting blood out) their patients, thinking it would take the disease with it. They knew nothing of how to prevent further infection or how unclean conditions helped spread the disease.

Nostradamus prescribed fresh air and water for the afflicted. He also recommended a low-fat diet and clean bedding. He often administered an herbal remedy made from rosehips, later discovered to be rich in vitamin C. Entire towns recovered under his care. Nostradamus's herbal remedies were common to the era. His beliefs about infection control, however, were contrary to the practices of his time. Such beliefs could have resulted in charges of heresy (opinions that are against church teachings) and a sentence of death.



Nostradamus.

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Personal tragedies

Word of Nostradamus's healing powers made him a celebrated figure. He wrote a book listing the doctors and pharmacists he had met in southern Europe, translated anatomical texts, developed recipes for gourmet foods, and received his doctorate in 1529 from the University of Montpellier. He also taught at the university for three years, but left when his radical ideas about disease were criticized.

Nostradamus married and settled in the town of Agen, France, with his wife. They had two children. Unfortunately, Le Charbon came again. While Nostradamus was trying to heal others, his wife and two young children died of the plague. Citizens looked upon him with scorn because he could not

save his own family. His in-laws sued for the return of his wife's dowry (the goods she brought to her husband when they were married). His patron (sponsor) also broke ties with him.

Visions

For the next several years Nostradamus traveled through southern Europe. By 1544 heavy rains were again helping to spread the plague to southern France. With his medicinal practices, Nostradamus managed to halt the spread of disease in one town. He was again celebrated for his skills.

Nostradamus moved to the town of Salon, France, set up a medical practice, remarried, and began a new family. Outwardly, Nostradamus was a devoted practicing Catholic. However, at night he spent the hours in his study meditating in front of a brass bowl filled with water and herbs. Meditation would bring on a trance. In such trances visions would come to him.

Nostradamus began writing about his visions when he wrote the first of his almanacs. It contained predictions of things to come in the next year. The almanacs appeared each year from 1550 to 1565. They were very popular with the public. The Almanacs spoke of astrological phases of the coming year and contained quatrains, or rhymed four-line verse, offering hints of upcoming events. The published works served to spread his fame across France to an even greater degree.

Nostradamus's visions had become such an important part of his studies that he decided to gather them into one massive work for future generations. He called this book *Centuries*. He planned that there would be ten volumes, each containing one hundred predictions in quatrain form. In it, the next two thousand years of humanity would be forecast—through the year 3797.

Prophecies brought fame and fortune

Nostradamus began working on *Centuries* in 1554. The first seven volumes were published the following year. He completed the other volumes soon after, but would not allow them to be published until after his death. The reception of the initial works made Nostradamus a celebrated figure.

Nostradamus's writings attracted the interest of France's royal family. He was invited to the Paris court of Henry II (1519–1559) and his wife, Catherine de' Medici (1519–1589). The Medicis were known for their Europe-wide political ambitions. The queen hoped that Nostradamus could give her guidance regarding her seven children. Nostradamus arrived in Paris in August of 1556.

Nostradamus explained that one of his quatrains referred to the king. It read: "The young lion will overcome the older one/ On the field of combat in single battle/ He will pierce his eyes through a golden cage/ Two wounds made one, then he dies a cruel death." Nostradamus cautioned King Henry against attending any ceremonial jousting during his forty-first year, which the regent's own astrologer had also asserted.

The physician spent the next few years in the luxury of the royal court. He heard that Catholic authorities were again becoming suspicious of his soothsaying (making prophecies) and were about to investigate him. He returned to his hometown of Salon and his wife and children.

On June 28, 1559, when he was forty-one years old, Henry II was injured in a jousting tournament celebrating two marriages in his family. With thousands watching, his opponent's lance "pierced the King's golden visor, entered his head behind the eye, both blinding him and penetrating deep into his brain. He held onto life for ten agonizing days," wrote John Hogue in *Nostradamus and the Millennium*.

Later years

Already a celebrated individual in France, Nostradamus now became a figure inspiring both awe and fright among the populace. His other prophecies regarding France's royal line were consulted, and most seemed to predict only death and tragedy. Henry's surviving widow, now Queen Regent Catherine de' Medici, visited him in Salon during her royal tour of 1564. He again told her (as he had when he drew up their astrology charts) that all four of her sons would become kings. All did, but all died young.

Nostradamus died in Salon, France, in 1566. Many translations of his *Centuries* and treatises on their significance appeared in the generations following his death. They remain popular to the present day. Some critics point out that the verses are vague and can be read in many ways. Other interpreters claim Nostradamus predicted Adolf Hitler's (1889–1945) rise to power, the explosion of the U.S. space shuttle Challenger in 1986, and many other events.

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RUDOLF NUREYEV

Born: March 17, 1938

Irkutsk, Russia

Died: January 6, 1993

Paris, France

Russian dancer

The Russian-born dancer and choreographer (a composer of dance) Rudolph Nureyev captured international acclaim as the greatest male ballet dancer of the 1960s and 1970s. His versatility (the ability to change easily) and energy were expressed in countless classical and modern roles, on both stage and screen.

Childhood

Rudolf Hametovich Nureyev was born on March 17, 1938, on a train travelling to Vladivostok in Russia, where his father was an instructor of Soviet soldiers. He was the youngest of the four children of Hamet and Farida Nureyev, who came from Asiatic Mongol ancestry. At the outbreak of World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis Powers: Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), his father joined the Soviet army and the family moved to Moscow, Russia. There, Nureyev, along with his three older sisters, grew up in terrible poverty, and the Nureyevs were forced to live with other families. At school he did not fair any better. Constantly teased and harassed by his fellow students for being raised so poor, Nureyev grew up lonely and isolated. But the young boy found enjoyment in one thing—music.



Rudolf Nureyev.

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Nureyev, despite early discouragement from his parents, began his dancing career with amateur folk dance groups and the Ufa Opera Ballet. At the age of seventeen he entered the Leningrad Ballet School to study with the outstanding teacher Alexander Pushkin. After three years of training he joined the Kirov Ballet as a soloist, dancing full length roles in *Don Quixote*, *Gayane*, *Giselle*, *La Bayadere*, *The Nutcracker*, *Swan Lake*, and *The Sleeping Beauty*.

Earning fame

Nureyev's offstage reputation was equally sensational, bringing him constant

trouble with both the Kirov management and the Russian political authorities. In the Kirov's first-ever appearance in Paris, France, in 1961, Nureyev was an outstanding success, yet his resistance of company regulations sparked a command return to Moscow. On June 17, 1961, Nureyev cut his ties with the Soviet Union (the former country that consisted of Russia and several smaller nations) seeking political asylum (political protection) at Le Bourget Airport in Paris, France.

Within five days, Nureyev embarked on a six-month season with the international Grand Ballet du Marquis de Cuevas, dancing the Prince and the Blue Bird in *The Sleeping Beauty*. As partner to Rosella Hightower, he made his London, England, debut in October 1961 at the Royal Academy of Dancing, where he met the ballerina Margot Fonteyn (1919–1991), who became his principal partner for many years. He became a regular guest artist with the Royal Ballet from 1962 to the mid-1970s, in addition to performing with Ruth Page's Chicago Opera Ballet, American Ballet Theatre, and on U.S. and French television.

With an inexhaustible stamina, Nureyev continued to perform at a nonstop pace, acquiring over ninety roles and appearances with over thirty major ballet and modern dance companies. Frederick Ashton (1904–1988), the British choreographer, was the first to create a role specifically for Nureyev in *Marguerite and Armand* in March 1963. Nureyev's own first production was the last act of *La Bayadere* for the Royal Ballet in November 1963, and his first reconstruction was the nineteenth-century three-act classic *Raymonda* for the Royal Ballet in June 1964.

His fascination with modern dance, which led to performances with American choreographers Martha Graham (1893–1991), Murray Louis, and Paul Taylor, began with Rudi Van Dantzig's *Monument for a Dead Boy* with the Dutch National Ballet in December 1968. He broke into film in 1972 with his directing debut of his own production of *Don Quixote* in Melbourne, Australia, and the creation of the film *I Am A Dancer*. The film *Rudolph Valentino*, directed by Ken Russell in 1976, gave Nureyev his debut as a film actor.

Self-reliance and a constant drive directed Nureyev's energy into a performing schedule around the world that only Anna Pavlova (1885–1931) could equal. His guest performances were slightly cut back with his assumption (the act of taking for oneself) of a three-year directorship of the Paris Opera Ballet in 1983. A rapidly changing character—shrewd, cunning, charming, and passionate—Nureyev demonstrated a commitment and a savage power equaled by no other dancer in his day. His last stage appearance was for a curtain call at the Palace Garnier

after the production of his dance *La Bayadere* had been performed. He succumbed to acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease that attacks the body's immune system) in Paris on January 6, 1993. He was fifty-four years old. "Any time you dance," Nureyev once said in an interview in *Entertainment Weekly*, "what you do must be sprayed with your blood."

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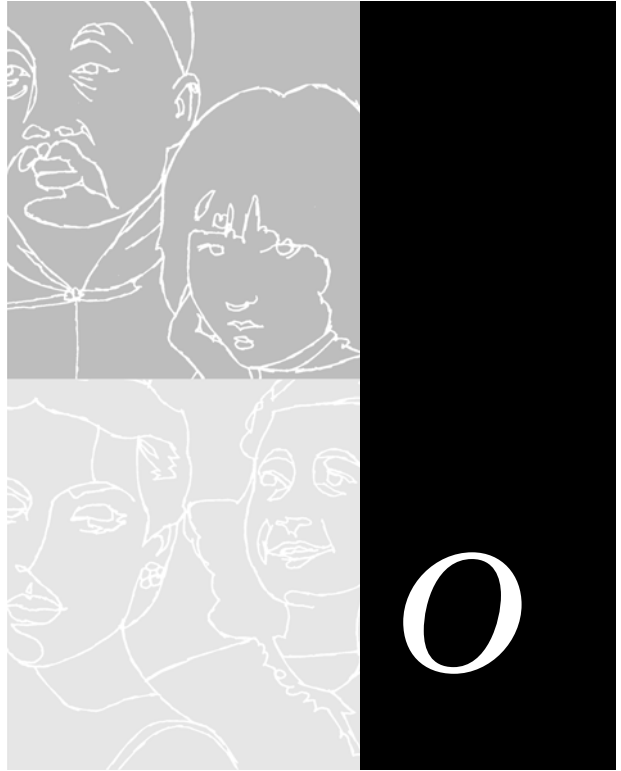
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JOYCE CAROL OATES

Born: June 16, 1938

Lockport, New York

American writer and poet

One of the United States's most prolific (producing a lot of work) and versatile (producing a wide variety of work) contemporary writers, Joyce Carol Oates focuses upon the spiritual, sexual, and intellectual decline of modern American society.

Early years

Joyce Carol Oates was born on June 16, 1938, in Lockport, New York, the oldest of

Frederic and Caroline Oates's three children. The family lived on a farm owned by Caroline's parents. Joyce's father was a tool designer, and her mother was a housewife. Oates was a serious child who read a great deal. Even before she could write, she told stories by drawing pictures. She has said that her childhood "was dull, ordinary, nothing people would be interested in," but she has admitted that "a great deal frightened me."

In 1953, at age fifteen, Oates wrote her first novel, though it was rejected by publishers who found its subject matter, which concerned the rehabilitation (the restoring to a useful state) of a drug addict, too depressing for teenage audiences. After high school Oates won a scholarship to Syracuse Univer-



Joyce Carol Oates.

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sity, where she studied English. Before her senior year she was the co-winner of a fiction contest sponsored by *Mademoiselle* magazine. After graduating at the top of her class in 1960, Oates enrolled in graduate school at the University of Wisconsin, where she met Raymond Joseph Smith, an English professor. They were married in 1961.

Teaching and writing

In 1961, after Oates earned her master's degree and began work on her doctorate in English, she found one of her own stories in Margaret Foley's collection *Best American Short Stories*. Oates then decided on a writing

career, and in 1963 she published her first volume of short stories, *By the North Gate* (1963). Oates also taught at the University of Detroit between 1961 and 1967. In 1967 she and her husband moved to Canada to teach at the University of Windsor, where together they founded the publication *Ontario Review* in 1974. After leaving the University of Windsor in 1977, Oates became writer-in-residence and later a professor at Princeton University in New Jersey.

Oates's first novel, *With Shuddering Fall* (1964), shows her interest in evil and violence in the story of a romance between a teenage girl and a thirty-year-old stock car driver that ends with his death in an accident. Oates's best-known early novels form a trilogy (three-volume work) exploring three different parts of American society. The first, *A Garden of Earthly Delights* (1967), tells the story of the daughter of a migrant worker who marries a wealthy farmer in order to provide for her illegitimate (having unmarried parents) son. The woman's existence is destroyed when the boy murders his stepfather and kills himself. In *Expensive People* (1967), Oates exposes the world of people in the suburbs whose focus on material comforts reveals the emptiness of their lives. The final volume, *them* (1969), which won the National Book Award for fiction, describes the violence and suffering endured by three generations of an urban (city-dwelling) family in Detroit, Michigan. Oates's experiences as a teacher in Detroit during the early 1960s contributed to her knowledge of the city and its social problems.

Oates's novels of the 1970s explore characters involved with various American professional and cultural institutions while

adding tragic elements. *Wonderland* (1971) is about a brilliant doctor who is unable to build a satisfying home life. *Do With Me What You Will* (1973) focuses on a young attorney who is honored by his peers for his devotion to social work. *The Assassins: A Book of Hours* (1975) deals with the effects of the murder of a politician on his wife and two brothers. *Son of the Morning* (1978) documents the rise and fall of a preacher whose faith is challenged and made stronger by various events in his life. *Unholy Loves* (1979) revolves around the lives of several teachers at a small New York college.

During the early 1980s Oates published several novels based on works by nineteenth-century authors. *A Bloodsmoor Romance* (1982) is the story of five maiden sisters living in Pennsylvania in the late 1800s and is influenced by the writings of Charlotte Brontë (1816–1855) and Emily Brontë (1818–1848). In *Mysteries of Winterthurn* (1984), Oates borrowed heavily from the works of Edgar Allan Poe (1809–1849). While some critics dismissed these works, others, citing Oates's accomplished description of evil, maintained that they are significant achievements in literature.

Other works and other names

Throughout Oates's writing career she has distributed her energies among several projects at once. Her book-length essay *On Boxing* (1987) led to at least one appearance commenting on a televised boxing match. Around the same time, she submitted a mystery novel to a publisher under a pseudonym (fake writing name) and had the thrill of having it accepted. Oates published the novel *Lives of the Twins* (1987) under the name Rosamond

Smith. "I wanted a fresh reading; I wanted to escape from my own identity," Oates told Linda Wolfe in the *New York Times Book Review*. Though she used the name again for several other books, she resumed using her name with the publication of *My Heart Laid Bare*, in which she explores morality (the question of right and wrong) during the 1920s.

Oates's works in other forms also address darker sides of the human condition. Most critics feel that Oates's short fiction, for which she has twice received the O. Henry Special Award for Continuing Achievement, best expresses her main themes. Such collections as *By the North Gate; Where Are You Going, Where Have You Been?: Stories of Young America* (1974); *The Lamb of Abyssalia* (1980); and *Raven's Wing* (1986) contain pieces that focus on violent and abusive relationships between men and women.

Later works

In *Because It Is Bitter, and Because It Is My Heart* (1990), Oates returns to the familiar themes of race and violence. Other works from this time include *Black Water* (1992), an account of a tragic encounter between a powerful U.S. senator and a young woman he meets at a party, and *Foxfire: Confessions of a Girl Gang* (1993), which describes the destructive activities of a group of teenage girls in the 1950s. The story is pieced together from former Foxfire gang member Maddy Wirtz's memories and journal and takes place in the industrial New York town of Hammond. Oates also had several plays published and produced in the 1990s.

In 1999 Oates's twenty-ninth novel, *Broke Heart Blues*, was published. In March 2000 *Blonde*, based on the life of actress

Marilyn Monroe (1926–1962), was released. The book was a finalist for the National Book Award for fiction. In June 2000 *Getting to Know You*, a film based on Oates's 1992 short story collection *Heat*, was released. Oates edited the collection *The Best American Essays of the Century*, which was published in 2000. *Middle Age: A Romance*, a novel, and *Beasts*, a novella (a work whose length is greater than that of a short story but less than that of a novel), were published in 2001.

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SANDRA DAY O'CONNOR

Born: August 26, 1930

El Paso, Texas

American Supreme Court justice

In 1981 Sandra Day O'Connor became the first woman to serve as a justice in the 191-year history of United States Supreme Court. A Republican appointed by Ronald Reagan, O'Connor has grit and intelligence that has made her an interesting figure in the nation's highest court of law.

Life on the Lazy B

Sandra Day O'Connor was born in El Paso, Texas, on August 26, 1930. Her parents, Harry and Ida Mae Day, owned a cattle ranch in southeastern Arizona called the Lazy B. In the beginning, the ranch did not have electricity or running water. Sandra grew up branding cattle, learning to fix whatever was broken, and enjoying life on the ranch.

Her experiences on the ranch shaped her character and developed her belief in hard work, but her parents also wanted O'Connor to gain an education. Living in such a remote area, the options for going to school were limited, and she had already shown that she was quite bright. By age four, she had learned how to read. Exploring places and schools that would be the best match for O'Connor's abilities, her parents decided to send her to El Paso to live with her grandmother and attend school. In El Paso she attended Radford School for girls and Austin High. She spent her summers at the ranch and the school years with her grandmother. She graduated high school early at the age of sixteen.

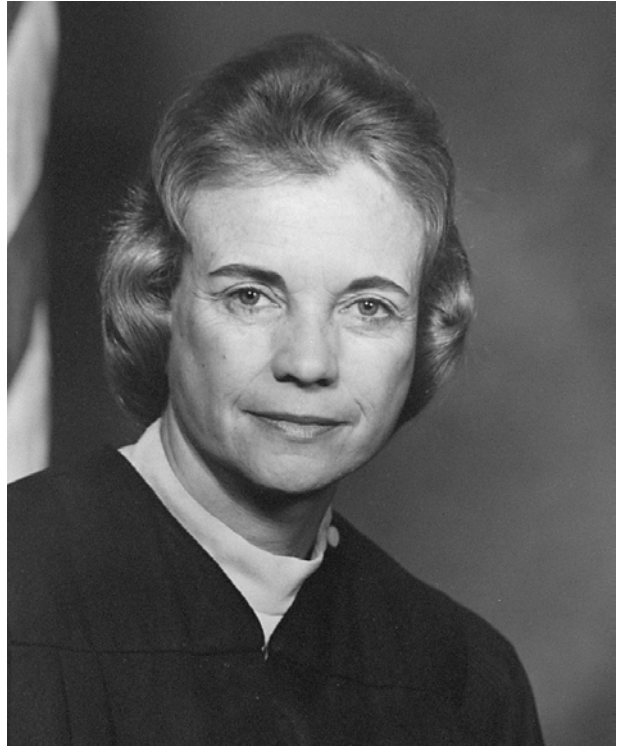
In 1946, after competing against many other people and despite the probability that she might not be accepted because she was a woman, O'Connor was accepted to Stanford University. In a program in which she finished two degrees in just six years instead of seven, she graduated in 1950 with a bachelor's degree in economics and received a law degree in 1952. While she was in law school, she was a member of the board of editors of the *Stanford Law Review*, a very high honor for a law student. Upon graduation she was at the top of her class, graduating third in a class of 102 students. O'Connor was just two places behind another future Supreme Court justice, William H. Rehnquist (1924–).

Marriage and career

After graduating, O'Connor tried to get a job in Los Angeles and San Francisco law firms, but because of the prejudices against women at that time (unfair treatment based on her sex), she could not get a job as a lawyer. She was offered a position as a legal secretary, which did not match her education and training. Instead, she took a position as a deputy county attorney in San Mateo, California. During this time, she also married John O'Connor, who was one class behind her at Stanford. Upon his completion of law school, the couple moved to Germany, where he served as an attorney in the U.S. Army. She worked as a civilian attorney, specializing in contracts.

Upon their return to the United States, the O'Connors settled in the Phoenix, Arizona, area. O'Connor and another lawyer opened a law office in suburban Maryvale, but for the next few years she devoted most of her time to raising her three sons, who were born between 1957 and 1962. She also joined many groups to improve her community and she began to take an active role in local Republican politics.

In 1965 O'Connor returned to full-time employment as one of Arizona's assistant attorneys general, an assistant to the chief law officer in the state. In 1969 the state senator from her district resigned, which led Governor Jack Williams (1909–1998) to appoint O'Connor to replace him. When the position was open for election in 1970, O'Connor won it and was easily reelected again in 1972. She was chosen as the Republican majority leader in the state senate in 1972. This was the first time that any woman anywhere in the country had held that position.



*Sandra Day O'Connor.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

In 1974 O'Connor left the state senate and became a county judge in the Maricopa County Superior Court. In 1979 Bruce Babbitt (1938–), the governor of Arizona, appointed her to the Arizona Court of Appeals.

During the last month of the 1980 presidential campaign, candidate Ronald Reagan (1911–) needed more support from female voters. He said that if he were elected he would appoint a woman to the Supreme Court. In July 1981 President Reagan kept his promise and nominated Sandra Day O'Connor. The Senate quickly and unanimously confirmed her. She became the first

female justice in the 191-year history of the court. When Reagan selected her for the Supreme Court, she became the first person appointed in twenty-four years with state court experience and the first in thirty-two years with lawmaking experience.

Supreme Court justice

Many people expected O'Connor to be solidly conservative (to work to preserve or keep traditions and resist changes) in her decisions on the Supreme Court. In fact, many conservative politicians objected to her appointment. They thought she would not oppose abortion (the termination of a pregnancy) because she was a woman. Abortion is a key issue for Republican conservatives. However, many women support abortion rights or the right for a woman to choose.

O'Connor made this issue somewhat confusing for the people who were studying her because she was not part of the organized women's movement which supports abortion. Although the Moral Majority (a very conservative Christian group opposing or against abortion) complained that O'Connor was in favor of abortion, she had cast votes against as well as for it in the legislature. As a justice, she aligned herself with the opponents of abortion (people against abortion).

Although she was not a strong supporter of the women's movement, O'Connor was a founder of both the Arizona Women Lawyers Association and the National Association of Women Judges. She also had fought to remove discrimination (or unequal treatment) against women from her state's bar (the body that governs law) rules and community property laws. As a justice, she was against discrimination based on gender. Her most

famous Supreme Court opinion (a formal written statement by a judge) was in the court case *Mississippi University for Women v. Hogan* (1982). In this decision, the Supreme Court ruled that it was unconstitutional for a state nursing school to refuse to admit men. With this decision, she displayed her ability to rule on equality issues that affect men.

Second decade on the Supreme Court

Supreme Court justices are important people for any president in office. Their rulings and votes are very influential and affect law and justice in the entire country. If an important issue is at stake in a case or a vote, the justices decide the way laws are carried out, which may be at odds or in agreement with a particular president or administration. O'Connor made decisions that sometimes confused presidents who wanted to be able to depend on her to vote in a certain way. By 1990 her vote had become unpredictable. In many decisions both sides tried to win her support.

During the 1990s, O'Connor was an important figure in determining the direction of a number of freedom rulings by the Supreme Court. These rulings included an interpretation of freedom of speech (rights to speak out publicly or privately) and censorship (control over what people may see, do, read, write, or hear). She also worked on a ruling about control of the Internet and cases about freedom of religion. She voted against a state-required moment of silence in public schools.

She also was involved in other court cases that ruled on privacy issues that were very important to American people. In a 1992 case against abortion rights, *Planned Parenthood v. Casey*, O'Connor was one of the majority who voted to keep abortion legal for

women. In other words, abortion was a woman's private decision.

O'Connor also influenced the court in cases involving discrimination and harassment (or unwelcome verbal or physical contact) based on gender. She gave the deciding vote in a decision against affirmative action in *Adarand v. Peña* (1995). Affirmative action began during the presidency of Lyndon B. Johnson (1908–1973). It was a program to improve opportunities for women and minorities in education and in the workplace.

One of the most important decisions that O'Connor took part in during her second decade on the Supreme Court was the result of one of the closest presidential elections in American history. When the votes from Florida were counted from the 2000 presidential election, the results were so close that many people wanted a recount. The justices stepped in and stopped a recount. With this ruling, they decided the election and Bush became president thirty-five days after election day.

Third decade on the Supreme Court

Early in 2001, rumors were circulating that O'Connor was planning to retire from the Supreme Court. She said they were not true, and she has remained in the center of many critical issues. In July of the same year she made a prominent speech to the Minnesota Women Lawyers Association about the death penalty. O'Connor also talked about the issue of people who have been sentenced to the death penalty and then have been found innocent and set free. She questioned the court-appointed lawyers who represented some of the people sentenced to the death penalty. She said that defendants who were represented by court-appointed lawyers were more likely to be

found guilty and sentenced to the death penalty. These reversed rulings (in which convicted people go free) are based on DNA evidence, the scientific evidence based on a person's identity that is established by genetic code found in hair, blood, and so forth. She has made comments that she thinks it might be important to look more closely at the counsel (attorneys) that are assigned to these cases and the process for convictions. Many of O'Connor's decisions while on the Supreme Court have been in support of the death penalty.

In 2002 O'Connor offered a bit more insight into her complex character by publishing the memoir *Lazy B: Growing up on a Cattle Ranch in the American Southwest*. She wrote it with her brother H. Alan Day. In it, O'Connor offers a look into how her Arizona ranch roots shaped her life, career, and views.

Although her decisions have not always been popular with women's rights activists, O'Connor still is considered to be a role model for women.

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GEORGIA O'KEEFFE

Born: November 15, 1887

Sun Prairie, Wisconsin

Died: March 6, 1986

Santa Fe, New Mexico

American painter

The American painter Georgia O'Keeffe (1887–1986) developed a distinctive art form that includes startling details of plant forms, bleached bones, and landscapes of the New Mexico desert—all created with natural clarity.

The young artist

Georgia O'Keeffe was born in Sun Prairie, Wisconsin, on November 15, 1887, to Francis and Ida O'Keeffe. She had six siblings, and the family lived on a farm outside of Madison, Wisconsin. Georgia attended the Sacred Heart Academy, and here she had a chance to learn about drawing and painting. She also attended Saturday art lessons. Her family moved to Williamsburg, Virginia, and she attended Chatham Episcopal Institute. Here she excelled in the school's art program.

In 1904 Georgia graduated and moved to study at the Art Institute of Chicago, Illinois (1905), and the Art Students League in New York City (1907–1908). She worked briefly as a commercial artist in Chicago, and in 1912 she became interested in the principles of Oriental design. After working as a public school art supervisor in Amarillo, Texas (1912–1914), she attended art classes conducted by Arthur Wesley Dow at Columbia University in New York City. She began to use Dow's system

of art education, based on frequent themes in Oriental art, in her teacher-training courses at West Texas State Normal College, where she served as department head (1916–1918).

Career as an artist begins

In 1916 Alfred Stieglitz (1864–1946), the well-known New York photographer and supporter of modernism (a style of art that went against established norms), exhibited some of O'Keeffe's abstract (a type of art that does not strongly represent real objects) drawings. In 1924 O'Keeffe and Stieglitz were married.

Lake George, Coat and Red (1919), a chief example of O'Keeffe's early abstract style, was a roughly brushed composition in which a twisted, mysterious form looms against a rainbow-colored sky. Early in her career she developed a personal, extremely polished style, favoring abstract subject matter such as flower details and severe architectural themes. Many of her paintings were dramatic, sharp-focus enlargements of botanical (flower or plant life) details.

Between 1926 and 1929 O'Keeffe painted a group of views of New York City. *New York Night* (1929) transformed skyscrapers into patterned, glittering structures. More architecturally characteristic were such paintings as *Lake George Barns* (1926) and *Ranchos Church, Taos* (1929). These simple buildings, further simplified in her painting, were America's anonymous folk architecture; in these forms O'Keeffe found a peace that contrasted with the frantic city environment.

New Mexico and new artistic subjects

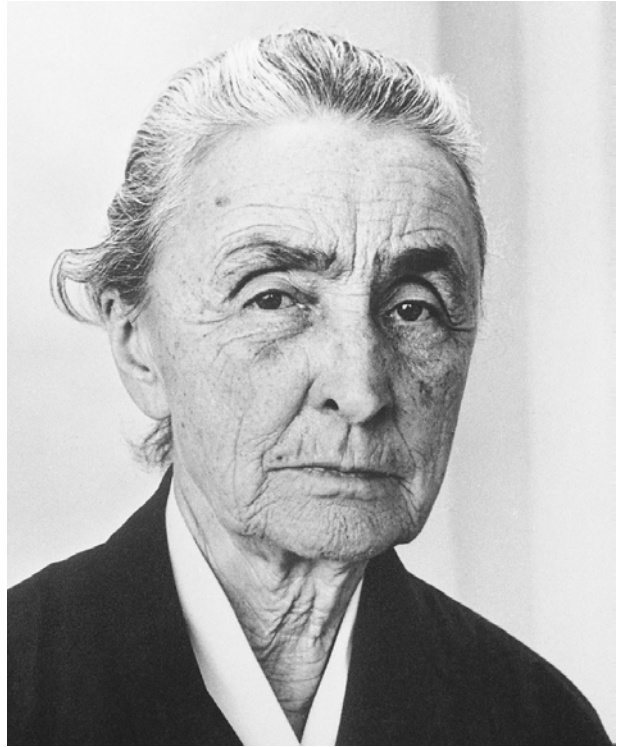
In 1929 O'Keeffe began spending time in New Mexico; the region's dramatic mesas,

ancient Spanish architecture, vegetation, and dry terrain became the focus of her art. Her subjects were simple and basic. Even her stories of death in the desert—a sunbleached skull lying in the sand or attached to a post (as in *Cow's Skull with Red*, 1936)—were preserved. She regarded these whitened remains as symbols of the desert, nothing more. The dried animal bones and wooden crucifixes of the region that appear in her desert (*Black Cross, New Mexico*, 1929) were disturbing imaginings.

In 1945 O'Keeffe bought an old adobe house in New Mexico; she moved there after her husband's death in 1946. The house served as a frequent subject in paintings such as *Black Patio Door* (1955) and *Patio with Cloud* (1956).

Many of O'Keeffe's paintings of the 1960s, large-scale patterns of clouds and landscapes seen from the air, reflected a romanticized view of nature reminiscent of her early themes. These large paintings culminated in a twenty-four-foot mural on canvas, *Sky above Clouds IV* (1965). Her paintings of the 1970s were intense, powerful representations of a black rooster.

A portrayal of O'Keeffe, *In Cahoots with Coyote* from Terry Tempest Williams's 1994 book *An Unspoken Hunger*, painted a vivid narrative of the artist's intense interest in the beloved New Mexico she first visited in 1917. Her search for the ideal color, light, stones, and parched bones, transformed her desert country excursions into a personal closeness she felt with the perfection around her. Once, in a canyon bottom, she was so absorbed by the sight that she laid her head back Coyote-fashion and howled at the sky, terrifying her companions nearby who feared she was



Georgia O'Keeffe.

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injured. "I can't help it—it's all so beautiful," was her response.

The end of a brilliant career

O'Keeffe's boldly original American works spanned a wide vision from taut city towers to deserts in such vivid hues and form "as to startle the senses," according to Williams's narrative. O'Keeffe painted until a few weeks before her death in Santa Fe, New Mexico, on March 6, 1986, at the age of ninety-eight.

Many of O'Keeffe's works found a permanent home among the adobe buildings of Santa Fe. The Georgia O'Keeffe Museum,

designed by New York architect Richard Gluckman, opened in 1997 to hold more of her pastels, drawings, paintings, and sculptures than any other museum.

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LAURENCE OLIVIER

Born: May 22, 1907

Dorking, England

Died: July 11, 1989

Amhurst, England

English actor and director

Laurence Olivier, internationally popular for his acting and directing, was often regarded as one of the supreme actors of his generation.

Early start at performing

Laurence Olivier was born on May 22, 1907, in Dorking, Surrey, England, the third

child of Gerard Kerr Olivier, a minister, and Agnes Crookenden. As a child Olivier imitated the forceful sermons he saw his father give. His mother, whom he was close to, encouraged him to learn and recite dramatic speeches from plays instead. His first appearances on the stage were in schoolboy productions of plays by William Shakespeare (1564–1616). Olivier was crushed by the sudden death of his mother in 1920, and he used acting to help deal with his pain. When his school, St. Edward's in Oxford, England, was invited to put on a performance of *The Taming of the Shrew* at the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre in Stratford-upon-Avon, England, in 1922, Olivier's performance as Katharina attracted considerable attention.

To prepare for a career in acting, Olivier studied at the Central School in London, England. He found his first paying jobs in the theater during term holidays, working as an assistant stage manager and playing small roles. After a year of experience at various theaters, Olivier joined the Birmingham Repertory Company in 1926, appearing in *She Stoops to Conquer* (1927) and a modern dress production of *Macbeth* (1928). At the age of twenty he also played the title role in Anton Chekhov's (1860–1904) *Uncle Vanya* (1927).

First commercial success

In 1928 Olivier had a part in the first production of *Journey's End*, considered one of the greatest plays ever about the horrors of war. In 1929 he made his first New York City appearance in *Murder on the Second Floor* and also worked in his first film, *The Temporary Widow*. His role in *Private Lives* (1930) brought him his first real commercial success, and soon after he made his first appear-

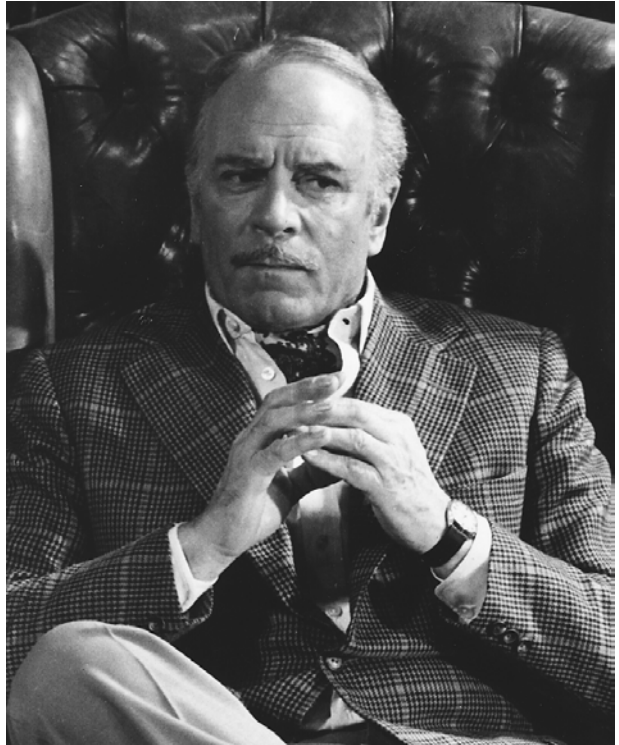
ance in a movie made in Hollywood, California. However, his early film career was filled with disappointments, including Greta Garbo's (1905–1990) refusal to accept him as her leading man in *Queen Christina*.

Back in England in 1934 Olivier received positive reviews for his performances in *Queen of Scots* and *Theatre Royal*. He next tackled his first major Shakespearean roles on the professional stage, alternating the parts of Romeo and Mercutio with John Gielgud (1904–2000) at the New Theatre (1935). The following year Olivier starred in his first Shakespearean film, *As You Like It*. Although disappointed with the film, he used the actors and composer William Walton for future Shakespeare productions. In 1937 he joined London's Old Vic Company for a season, playing in *Hamlet*, *Henry V*, *Macbeth*, and *Twelfth Night*. Having demonstrated his range and skill in interpreting Shakespeare's works, Olivier was now recognized as a top-notch stage actor.

Film triumphs

Three major screen roles, in *Wuthering Heights* (1939, for which he was nominated, or put forward for consideration, for an Academy Award for Best Actor), *Rebecca* (1940, a second Academy Award nomination), and *Pride and Prejudice* (also 1940), firmly established Olivier's film career. Also in 1940 Olivier and Academy Award winner Vivien Leigh (1913–1967) were married. In 1941 Olivier and Leigh played the tragic lovers in *That Hamilton Woman*, regarded as one of the great romantic films of the era.

During World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies: England,



Laurence Olivier.

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France, the Soviet Union, and the United States) Olivier served with the Fleet Air Arm and was released twice to act in British war films. In 1943 and 1944 he appeared in a film version of *Henry V*, originally planned as a propaganda project (the spreading of ideas or information to help a cause) for the British war effort. He won a special Academy Award for his triple triumph as director, producer, and star of the film.

Postwar work

Olivier was discharged from the service to join the Old Vic's management in rebuilding the company after the difficult war years.

He remained with the company until 1949. Some of his most memorable roles during this time were in *Arms and the Man* (1944) and *Uncle Vanya* (1945); he also played the title roles in *Richard III* (1945) and *King Lear* (1946), the latter of which he also directed. Perhaps his most demanding performance was for the double bill in which he appeared in *Oedipus Rex* and *The Critic* (1945). Returning to film direction in 1948 with his famous black-and-white version of *Hamlet*, Olivier won an Academy Award for best actor, and the film won the award for best picture. Olivier was also knighted by King George VI (1895–1952) of England.

In 1951 Olivier appeared in *Antony and Cleopatra* and *Caesar and Cleopatra* in both London and New York City. He also performed in *The Sleeping Prince* (1955), *Macbeth*, and *Titus Andronicus* during the 1954 and 1955 seasons at the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre, and in *Coriolanus* (1959), again at Stratford. He scored his first success in a modern role as the music hall comedian Archie Rice in *The Entertainer* (1957), repeating the part in the 1959 film version. He also directed and starred in *The Prince and the Showgirl* (1957) opposite Marilyn Monroe (1926–1962). In 1961 he was appointed the first director of the Chichester Festival Theatre. *Uncle Vanya*, starring Olivier and his third wife Joan Plowright (1929–), proved to be a huge success for the company's opening 1962 season.

Later years

Olivier was then named the first director of the state-supported National Theatre, a position he held until 1973. For the National's opening 1963–64 season Olivier directed

Hamlet and appeared in *Uncle Vanya* (which he also directed) and *The Recruiting Officer*. In later seasons he appeared in *Love for Love* (1965), *The Dance of Death* (1967), *The Merchant of Venice* (1970), and *A Long Day's Journey into Night* (1971). His most significant production as director was Chekhov's *The Three Sisters* in 1968. He also directed the 1970 film of the production. In 1970 Olivier was given the title Lord Olivier of Brighton—becoming the first actor to achieve such a rank. During his National years he appeared in several other filmed stage productions, and his commercial films included *Nicholas and Alexandra* (1971) and *Sleuth* (1972).

After leaving the National, Olivier appeared in twenty-nine films in thirteen years, including *Marathon Man* (1976), *A Bridge Too Far* (1977), *A Little Romance* (1979), and *The Jazz Singer* (1981). During this span he received two more Academy Award nominations, becoming the most nominated actor in history. In 1982 Olivier wrote his autobiography (the story of his own life) *Confessions of an Actor*; another book, *On Acting*, was published in 1986. In 1987 he announced to the world his retirement from motion pictures, but he promised to remain active in television. On July 11, 1989, Olivier died in Amhurst, England, of complications from a muscle disorder.

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JACQUELINE KENNEDY ONASSIS

Born: July 28, 1929

Southampton, New York

Died: May 19, 1994

New York, New York

American first lady and editor

An internationally famous first lady, Jacqueline Kennedy Onassis raised her two children alone after the assassination of President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963). After a seven-year remarriage to Aristotle Onassis (c. 1900–1975), she turned to a career as a book editor.

A privileged childhood

Jacqueline Lee Bouvier was born on July 28, 1929, to Janet Lee Bouvier (1908–) and John (Jack) Vernon Bouvier III (1892–1957). Jackie was a strong and independent child. She was initially considered a discipline problem at Miss Chapin's, the fashionable school on Manhattan's East Side that she attended as a young girl. Janet and Jack had a troubled marriage, and they were divorced in 1940. Jackie lived with her mother, who in 1942 remarried Hugh Dubley Auchincloss, Jr. (1897–1976), a lawyer from a wealthy old family. The Auchinclosses were much wealthier than the Bou-

viers, and Jackie and her sister Lee lived with their mother and her new husband.

Jackie's mother's remarriage created conflict in the family. Although Jackie adored her father, she saw less and less of him, especially after her mother and stepfather moved their family to Washington, D.C. The summers were spent at the Auchincloss home, known as Hammersmith Farm, in Newport, Rhode Island. In 1944 Jackie was sent to boarding school at Miss Porter's in Farmington, Connecticut.

Jackie was a beautiful and elegant young woman. When she made her social debut, a top newspaper gossip columnist named her Debutante of 1947. Jackie began her college education at Vassar, where she seemed embarrassed by the reputation attached to her social success. She was a serious student who worked hard and made the dean's list. She spent two years at Vassar, and then studied for a year in France through a program offered by Smith College. After she returned to the United States, Jackie finished college at George Washington University in Washington, D.C. She then took a job at the *Washington Times-Herald* newspaper as a photographer.

Life as a Kennedy

In 1951 Jackie met John Fitzgerald Kennedy for the first time. The next year Kennedy was elected senator from Massachusetts and moved to Washington. The two continued to see each other, and they became engaged in June 1953. On September 12, 1953, Jacqueline Lee Bouvier married Kennedy at an enormous wedding that was the social event of the season.

Jackie Kennedy was a shy, private woman with little experience in politics or



Jacqueline Kennedy Onassis.

knowledge of politicians, but she was a help to her husband in many ways. She worked with him on his public speaking, helping him develop the charismatic (or charming) style for which he would become so famous.

In 1956 there was talk that John Kennedy would be the Democratic vice presidential nominee. Many members of the Kennedy family attended the convention, which was an exciting and exhausting one. Jackie was there to lend her support, despite the fact that she was seven months pregnant. Although John Kennedy gave a speech nominating Adlai Stevenson (1900–1965) as the Democratic candidate for president, Estes

Kefauver (1903–1963) was selected as the vice presidential candidate.

On August 23, 1956, soon after her husband had left for a short vacation, Jackie went into premature labor. The baby was stillborn, or dead at birth, and Jackie's brother-in-law Bobby Kennedy (1925–1968) comforted her and made the arrangements for the baby's burial. In 1957 Jackie suffered another loss when her father died. This was also a difficult period in the Kennedy marriage. Much was rumored at the time, and has been written since, about the various affairs that John Kennedy had both before and during his presidency. Undoubtedly, these rumors put a strain on his and Jackie's marriage.

On November 27, 1957, Caroline Bouvier Kennedy was born. Just months after Caroline's birth, her father was up for reelection as senator from Massachusetts, and Jackie was active in the 1958 senatorial campaign as well.

Jackie becomes first lady

Soon after John Kennedy was reelected senator and returned to Washington, he began to seek the presidential nomination. Jackie campaigned vigorously for her husband until she became pregnant in 1960. Even afterwards she continued to help as much as she was physically able until the birth of her son, John Jr.

As soon as John Kennedy was elected president, Jackie began working to reorganize the White House so that she could turn it into a home for her children and protect their privacy. At the same time she recognized the importance of the White House as a public institution and a national monument. She

formed the White House Historical Association to help her with the task of redecorating the building, as well as a Special Committee for White House Paintings to further advise her. She wrote an introduction to "The White House: A Historical Guide," and she also developed the idea of a filmed tour of the White House that she would conduct. The tour was broadcast on Valentine's Day 1962, and it was eventually distributed to 106 countries.

In April of 1963 the Kennedys announced that Jackie was once again pregnant. On August 7, 1963, Patrick Bouvier Kennedy was born. He died three days later. Another tragedy struck soon after. Jackie Kennedy was riding by her husband's side when he was assassinated on November 22, 1963, in Texas. In the days that followed John Kennedy's death, the image of his widow and children, and the dignity with which they conducted themselves, were very much a part of the nation's experience of mourning and loss.

After leaving the White House

In the years immediately after her husband's death, Jackie Kennedy was seen very much in the role of his widow. At the same time there was constant speculation about whether or not she would remarry. Jackie was actively involved in brother-in-law Robert Kennedy's campaign for president in 1968. After his assassination in June 1968, she was again a well-known figure at a very public funeral.

In October 1968 Jackie Kennedy married Aristotle Onassis (c. 1900–1975), a wealthy Greek businessman. He was sixty-two and she was thirty-nine. Jackie spent large portions of her time in New York to be with her children. As the years went by, the Onassis

marriage was rumored to be a difficult one, and the couple began to spend most of their time apart. Aristotle Onassis died in 1975. Widowed for a second time, Jackie returned permanently to New York. For the next two decades Jackie worked as a book editor for several large publishers in New York City.

In 1994 Jackie Kennedy told the public that she was being treated for non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (a form of cancer), and that her condition was responding well to therapy. However, the disease proved fatal on May 19, 1994, when she died in New York City. She is buried next to John F. Kennedy in Arlington National Cemetery.

In death, Jackie Kennedy remains a symbol of strength in American culture. Her courage during some of the country's darkest periods has inspired countless books about her and solidified her important role in one of the nation's favorite families.

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EUGENE O'NEILL

Born: October 16, 1888

New York, New York

Died: November 27, 1953

Boston, Massachusetts

American playwright

Eugene O'Neill was among the leading dramatists of the American theater. Four of his plays were honored with the Pulitzer Prize. His main concern was with the anguish and pain experienced by sensitive (easily hurt or damaged) people.

Early life on the road

Eugene Gladstone O'Neill was born on October 16, 1888, in a New York City hotel. He was the youngest of the three children of James O'Neill, an outstanding romantic actor, and Ella Quinlan O'Neill. Eugene had two brothers, James, Jr. (born 1878), and Edmund (born 1883). Edmund's death at a young age brought deep feelings of guilt into the family. Eugene spent his first seven years on tour with his parents. Although he received a lot of exposure to the theater, he hated living in hotel rooms, and the constant traveling drove his mother to become addicted to drugs.

From the age of seven to fourteen, O'Neill was educated at Catholic schools. When he rebelled against any further Catholic education, his parents sent him to Betts Academy in Connecticut. He also began to spend time with his brother, James, a heavy drinker, who "made sin easy for him." Eugene's formal education ended in 1907

with an unfinished year at Princeton University in New Jersey. By this time his three main interests were books, alcohol, and women.

Decides to write

In 1909 O'Neill married Kathleen Jenkins before leaving for Honduras to mine for gold. A month after his return in April 1910, his son Eugene O'Neill, Jr., was born. O'Neill left later that year to work at sea. He also did odd jobs in Buenos Aires, Argentina. Back in New York in 1911, he spent several weeks drinking in bars before shipping out again to England. Almost half of his published plays show his interest in the sea. In 1912 O'Neill's marriage broke up, he tried to kill himself, and he developed tuberculosis (a disease of the lungs). By the time he was released from the hospital in June 1913, he had decided to become a dramatist.

O'Neill began to write constantly. With his father's aid, five of his one-act plays were published in 1914. O'Neill then joined George Pierce Baker's playwriting class at Harvard University in Massachusetts. O'Neill planned to return to Harvard in the fall of 1915 but ended up instead at the "Hell Hole," a hotel and bar in New York City, where he drank heavily and produced nothing. He next joined the Provincetown Players in Cape Cod, Massachusetts, whose productions of his plays about the sea, including *Bound East for Cardiff*, made him well known by 1918. Also in 1918 O'Neill married Agnes Boulton. They had a son, Shane, and a daughter, Oona.

Wins first Pulitzer Prize

In O'Neill's early writing he concentrated heavily on the one-act form. His hard work led to great success with the production of

his full-length *Beyond the Horizon* (1920), for which he won his first Pulitzer Prize. The play is similar to the one-act form in its structure, but by adding a poetic and well-spoken character, O'Neill was able to reach high dramatic moments.

O'Neill's father, mother, and brother all died within a four-year span during the 1920s. His marriage was also troubled, as he had fallen in love with Carlotta Monterey. He divorced Agnes Boulton in 1929 and soon married Carlotta. Even with these pressures, O'Neill was incredibly productive. In the fifteen years following the appearance of *Beyond the Horizon*, he wrote twenty-one plays, some brilliant successes (including *Anna Christie* and *Strange Interlude*, both Pulitzer Prize winners, as well as *Desire Under the Elms*, and *Mourning Becomes Electra*) and others total failures.

Later life

Carlotta Monterey brought a sense of order to O'Neill's life. His health worsened rapidly from 1937 on, but her care helped him remain productive. O'Neill had poor relationships with his children: Eugene Jr., who killed himself in 1950; Shane, who became addicted to drugs; and Oona, who was ignored by her father after her marriage to actor Charlie Chaplin (1889–1977). O'Neill even left Shane and Oona out of his will. When O'Neill knew that death was near, he tore up six of his unfinished plays rather than have someone else rewrite them. He died on November 27, 1953.

With the exception of *The Iceman Cometh* (1946), all of O'Neill's later works were produced after his death. *The Iceman Cometh* fascinated audiences despite its length. *Long Day's Journey into Night* (1956), an autobiographical (describing his own life) work



Eugene O'Neill.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

using no theatrical effects, showed O'Neill at the height of his dramatic power. It also received the Pulitzer Prize. Among all of his late plays, *A Touch of the Poet* (1958) has the strongest elements of romantic warmth.

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GEORGE ORWELL

Born: June 25, 1903

Motihari, India

Died: January 21, 1950

London, England

English writer, novelist, and essayist

The English novelist and essayist, George Orwell, is best known for his satirical (using wit or sarcasm to point out and devalue sin or silliness) novels *Animal Farm* and *Nineteen Eighty-four*.

Early years

George Orwell was born Eric Arthur Blair in Motihari, Bengal, India, to Richard and Ida Mabel Blair. He had an older sister and a younger sister. His father was a minor customs official in the Indian Civil Service. When Orwell was four years old, his family returned to England, where they settled at Henley, a village near London, England. His father soon returned to India.

As a child, Orwell was shy and lacked self-confidence. He suffered from bronchitis all his life. He spent long hours reading and was especially interested in science fiction, ghost stories, William Shakespeare's (1564–

1616) plays, and fiction by Edgar Allan Poe (1809–1849), Charles Dickens (1812–1870), and Rudyard Kipling (1865–1936). When Orwell was eight years old, he was sent to a private preparatory school in Sussex, England. He later claimed that his experiences there determined his views on the English class system. From there he went by scholarship to two private secondary schools: Wellington for one term and Eton for four and a half years.

Orwell then joined the Indian Imperial Police, receiving his training in Burma, where he served from 1922 to 1927. While home on leave in England, Orwell made the important decision not to return to Burma, but to pursue writing. His resignation from the Indian Imperial Police became effective on January 1, 1928. Later evidence suggests that he had come to understand the imperialism for which he was serving, and had rejected it. Imperialism is a political and economic practice whereby a nation increases its power by gaining control or ownership of other territories.

Establishment as a writer

Shortly after making this decision Orwell stayed in Notting Hill, a poor section in London's East End, and in a working-class district of Paris, France. He wrote two novels, both lost, during his stay in Paris, and he published a few articles in French and English. After working as a kitchen porter and dishwasher, and suffering from pneumonia (a lung disease), he returned to his parents' house in Suffolk, England, toward the end of 1929.

Back in England, Orwell earned his living by teaching and by writing occasional articles, while he completed several versions of his first book, *Down and Out in London and Paris*. This

novel recorded his experiences in the East End and in Paris. Because he was earning his living as a teacher when his novel was scheduled for publication, he preferred to publish it under a pseudonym (a made-up name used by an author to disguise his or her true identity). From a list of four possible names submitted to his publisher, he chose “George Orwell.”

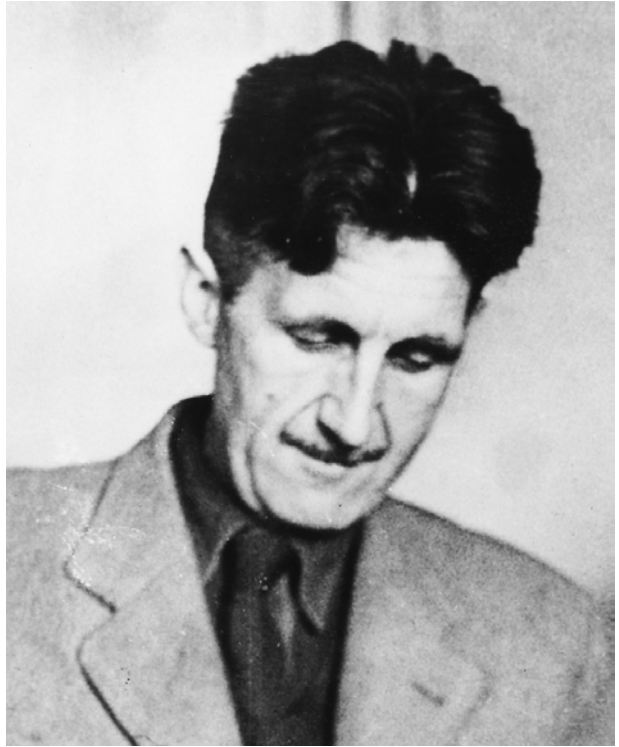
First novels

Orwell's *Down and Out* was issued in 1933. During the next three years he supported himself by teaching, reviewing, and clerking in a bookshop. In 1934 he published *Burmese Days*. The plot of this novel concerns personal intrigue (plotting) among an isolated group of Europeans in Burma (a country now known as Myanmar). Two more novels followed: *A Clergyman's Daughter* (1935) and *Keep the Aspidochelone Flying* (1936).

In the spring of 1936 Orwell moved to Wallington, Hertfordshire, and several months later married Eileen O'Shaughnessy, a teacher and journalist. The Left Book Club authorized Orwell to write an inquiry into the lives of the poor and unemployed. *The Road to Wigan Pier* (1937) included an essay on class and socialism (a social system in which the production of goods and distribution of wealth is controlled centrally). It marked Orwell's birth as a political writer, an identity that lasted for the rest of his life.

Political commitments and essays

In July 1936 the Spanish Civil War broke out. Orwell arrived in Barcelona, Spain, at the end of autumn and joined the militia (a group of citizens who serve in the armed forces of a country). Orwell was wounded in the middle of May 1937. During his recovery,



George Orwell.

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the militia was declared illegal, and he fled into France in June. His experiences in Spain had made him into a revolutionary socialist, one who advocated change to a socialist form of society through rebellion of the people.

After Orwell returned to England, he began writing *Homage to Catalonia* (1938), which describes his disappointment with the Loyalists during the Spanish Civil War. He then wished to return to India to write a book, but he became ill with tuberculosis (a serious disease of the lungs). He was treated in a hospital until late in the summer of 1938. He spent the following winter in Morocco, where he wrote *Coming Up for Air*

(1939). After he returned to England, Orwell authored several of his best-known essays. These include the essays on Dickens and on boys' weeklies and "Inside the Whale."

After World War II (1939–1945; a war fought between the Axis: Italy, Germany, and Japan, and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States) began, Orwell wanted to enlist. The army, however, rejected him as physically unfit. Later he served for a period in the home guard and as a fire watcher. The Orwells moved to London in May 1940. In early 1941 George Orwell began writing "London Letters" for *Partisan Review*, and in August he joined the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) as a producer in the Indian section. He remained in this position until 1943.

First masterpiece

In 1943 Orwell's mother died; he left the BBC to become literary editor of the *Tribune*; and he began reviewing books on a more regular basis. By February 1944 Orwell had completed *Animal Farm*, but several publishers rejected it on political grounds. It finally appeared in August 1945. This fable intends to enforce a useful truth, the failure of communism, through animals that speak and act like humans.

Toward the end of World War II, Orwell traveled to France, Germany, and Austria as a reporter. His wife died in March 1945. The next year he settled on Jura off the coast of Scotland, with his youngest sister as his housekeeper.

Crowning achievement

Although Orwell's health was now steadily falling apart, he started work on *Nineteen*

Eighty-four. Published in 1949, this book is an elaborate satire (a literary work that uncovers the corrupt morals of humans) on modern politics, foretelling a world in which humans are made less than human in a world where citizens are at the mercy of the state's absolute control. Orwell entered a London hospital in September 1949 and the next month married Sonia Brownell. He died in London on January 21, 1950.

Orwell's work is strongly autobiographical (based on the events of his own life) and combines elements of his own middle-class experience with his desire to cause social reform. He was critical of intellectuals whose political viewpoints struck him as superficial. His strong stand against communism (a system in which the government controls all businesses) resulted from his experience of its methods gained as a fighter in the Spanish Civil War.

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OVID

Born: 43 B.C.E.

Sulmo, Italy

Died: c. 18 C.E.

Tomis (now Constanta, Romania)

Roman poet

Ovid was a Roman poet. His verse is distinguished by its easy elegance and sophistication (subtle complexity).

Early life

Ovid was born Publius Ovidius Naso on March 20, 43 B.C.E., at Sulmo (modern Sulmona), Italy, about ninety miles from Rome. His father was wealthy and intended for him to become a lawyer and an official. He gave Ovid an excellent education, including study under great rhetoricians (masters of language and speech).

Ovid preferred exercises that dealt with historical or imaginary circumstances. His orations (formal speeches) seemed like poems without meter. His ease in composition, the content of some of his poems, and the rhetorical (having to do with language skills) nature of much of his work in general all reflect his training with the rhetoricians.

Ovid also studied in Athens, Greece, toured the Near East, and lived for almost a year in Sicily. His father convinced him to return to Rome, where he served in various minor legal positions, but he disliked the work and lacked political ambitions.

Early works

After leaving legal work, Ovid moved in the best literary circles. He had attracted notice as a poet while still in school and in time came to be surrounded by a group of admirers. This period of Ovid's life seems to

have been relatively peaceful as well as productive. Of his private life we know little except that he was married three times.

Ovid's early work was almost always on the theme of love. He wrote three short books of verses known as the *Amores* (*Loves*). Most of these poems concern Ovid's love for a woman who is generally considered to be imaginary. During this time he also wrote his *Heroides*, a series of letters from mythical heroines to their absent husbands or lovers.

His exile

In 8 or 9 C.E. Ovid was banished to Tomi, a city on the Black Sea in what is now modern Romania. The reasons behind Ovid's exile have been the subject of much guessing. He himself tells us that the reason was "a poem and a mistake." The poem was clearly his *Loves*. The poem made fun of conventional (socially accepted) love poetry and offered vivid portrayals of contemporary Roman society.

This work was an immediate and overwhelming success in fashionable society, but apparently infuriated the emperor Augustus (63 B.C.E.–14 C.E.). The emperor excluded it from the public libraries of Rome along with Ovid's other works. The journey to his exile in Tomi lasted nearly a year. When he arrived, he found it a frontier post, where books and educated people were not to be found and Latin was practically unknown. Tomi was subject to attack by hostile barbarians and to bitterly cold winters.

The production of the last ten years of his life consists largely of appeals to be allowed to return to Rome, but Augustus was too bitterly offended to forgive him. The next emperor



Ovid.

Tiberius (42 B.C.E.–37 C.E.) was even more unyielding. Ovid's exile was not so unbearable as his letters indicate. He learned the native languages, and his pleasantness and friendliness made him a beloved and revered figure to the local citizens. They exempted him from taxes and treated him well.

His masterpiece

Ovid's masterpiece is generally considered to be his *Metamorphoses*. It is an epic (a long poem centered around legendary heroes), fifteen books in length, and devoted mainly to the theme of changes in shape. The first twelve books were derived from Greek

mythology, and books thirteen to fifteen devoted to Roman legends and history. The transitions between the various stories are managed with great skill. *Metamorphoses* owes its preservation to the incomparable narrative skill with which Ovid takes the old tales of a mythology and gives spirit to them with charm and freshness.

Later influence

In ancient culture the influence of Ovid on all writers who followed him was inescapable for those who were consciously attempting to return to earlier standards. His stories, particularly from *Metamorphoses*, were a major source for the illustrations of artists.

In the Middle Ages (500 through 1450), especially the High Middle Ages (1000 through 1200), when interest in Ovid's works was primarily centered on *Metamorphoses*, *Loves*, and *Heroides*, Ovid helped to fill the overpowering medieval hunger for storytelling.

During the Renaissance period (the fourteenth through sixteenth centuries), Ovid was easily the most influential of the Latin poets. Painters and sculptors used his work for themes. Writers of all ranks translated, adapted, and borrowed from him freely. In English literature alone Edmund Spenser (1552–1599), John Milton (1608–1674), and William Shakespeare (1564–1616) show a deep knowledge and use of Ovid.

After the Renaissance, Ovid's influence was most often indirect. However, many authors and artists used him directly from then until modern times, ranging from John Dryden (1631–1700), who translated *Metamorphoses*, and Pablo Picasso (1881–1973), who illustrated Dryden's work.

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JESSE OWENS

Born: September 12, 1913

Oakville, Alabama

Died: March 31, 1980

Tucson, Arizona

African American track star

American track star Jesse Owens became the hero of the 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin, Germany, as his series of victories scored a moral victory for African American athletes.

A young track star

James Cleveland Owens was born in Oakville, Alabama, on September 12, 1913, the son of a sharecropper, a farmer who rents land. He was a sickly child, often too frail to help his father and brothers in the fields. The family moved to Cleveland, Ohio, in 1921,

for better work opportunities. There was little improvement in their life, but the move did enable young Owens to enter public school, where a teacher accidentally wrote down his name as “Jesse” instead of J. C. He carried the name with him for the rest of his life.

When Owens was in the fifth grade, the athletic supervisor asked him to join the track team. From a skinny boy he developed into a strong runner, and in junior high school he set a record for the 100-yard dash. In high school in 1933 he won the 100-yard dash, the 200-yard dash, and the broad jump in the National Interscholastic Championships. Owens was such a complete athlete, a coach said he seemed to float over the ground when he ran.

Record setter and Olympian

A number of universities actively recruited Owens, but he felt that college was only a dream. He felt he could not leave his struggling family and young wife when a paycheck needed to be earned. Owens finally agreed to enter Ohio State University in Columbus, Ohio, after officials found employment for his father. In addition to his studies and participation in track, Owens worked three jobs to pay his tuition. He experienced racism (the idea that one race is superior to others) while a student at Ohio State, but the incidents merely strengthened his desire to succeed. At the Big Ten Conference track and field championships at the University of Michigan in 1935, he broke three world records and tied another. His 26 foot 8 1/4-inch broad jump set a record that was not broken for twenty-five years.

Owens was a member of the 1936 U.S. Olympic team competing in Berlin, Germany.



Jesse Owens.

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The African American members of the squad faced the challenges not only of competition but also of Adolph Hitler's (1889–1945) boasts of Aryan supremacy, or the domination of Hitler's ideal white, European athletes. Owens won a total of four gold medals at the Olympic games. As a stunned Hitler angrily left the stadium, German athletes embraced Owens and the spectators chanted his name. He returned to a hero's welcome in America, and was honored with a ticker tape parade in New York City. Within months, however, he was unable to find work to finance his senior year of college. Owens took a job as a playground supervisor, but was soon approached

by promoters who wanted him to race against horses and cars. With the money from these exhibitions, he was able to finish school.

In 1937 Owens lent his name to a chain of cleaning shops. They prospered until 1939, when the partners fled, leaving Owens with a bankrupt business and heavy debts. He found employment with the Office of Civilian Defense in Philadelphia (1940–1942) as national director of physical education for African Americans. From 1942 to 1946 he was director of minority employment at Ford Motor Company in Detroit, Michigan. He later became a sales executive for a Chicago sporting goods company.

Ambassador of sport

In 1951 Owens accompanied the Harlem Globetrotters basketball team to Berlin at the invitation of the U.S. High Commission and the army. He was appointed secretary of the Illinois Athletic Commission (1952–1955), and was sent on a global goodwill tour as ambassador of sport for the United States. Also in 1955, he was appointed to the Illinois Youth Commission. In 1956 he organized the Junior Olympic Games for youngsters in Chicago between the ages of twelve and seventeen. Owens and his friend, boxer Joe Louis (1914–1981), were active in helping African American youth.

Owens headed his own public relations firm in Chicago, Illinois, and for several years had a jazz program on Chicago radio. He traveled throughout the United States and overseas, lecturing youth groups. Not especially involved in the civil rights movement, which pushed for equal rights among all races, Owens admired civil rights leader Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968). Owens and

his childhood sweetheart, whom he had married in 1931, had three daughters.

Honors

Forty years after Owens won his gold medals, he was invited to the White House to accept a Medal of Freedom from President Gerald Ford (1913–). The following year, the Jesse Owens International Trophy for amateur athletes was established. In 1979 President Jimmy Carter (1924–) honored Owens with a Living Legend Award.

In the 1970s Owens moved his business from Chicago to Phoenix, Arizona, but as time progressed, his health deteriorated. He died of cancer on March 31, 1980, after a lengthy stay in a Phoenix hospital. He was buried in Chicago several days later.

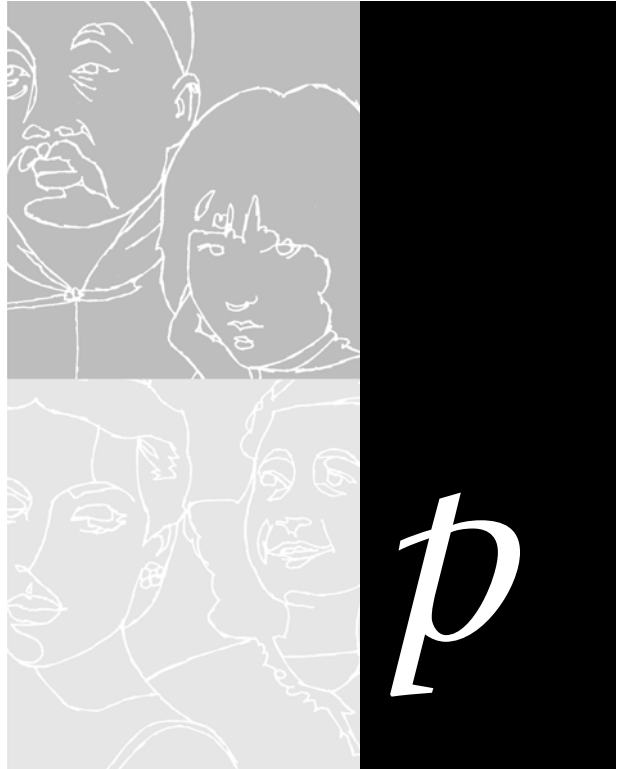
The highest honor Owens received came a full ten years after his death. Congressman Louis Stokes from Cleveland pushed tirelessly to earn Owens a Congressional Gold Medal. President George Bush (1924–) finally gave the award to Owens's widow in 1990. During the ceremony, President Bush called Owens "an Olympic hero and an American hero every day of his life." Owens's fabled career as a runner again caught public attention in the 1996 Olympic Games—the sixtieth anniversary of his Berlin triumph—as

entrepreneurs (risk-taking businessmen) hawked everything from Jesse Owens gambling chips to commemorative (having to do with honoring someone or something) oak tree seedlings similar to the one Owens was awarded as a gold medallist in Berlin.

Racism at home had denied Owens the financial fruits of his victory after the 1936 games, but his triumph in what has been called the most important sports story of the century continued to be an inspiration for modern day Olympians like track stars Michael Johnson (1967–) and Carl Lewis (1961–). In *Jet* magazine (August 1996), Johnson credited Owens for paving the way for his and other black athletes' victories.

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MOHAMMAD REZA PAHLAVI

Born: October 27, 1919

Tehran, Iran

Died: July 21, 1980

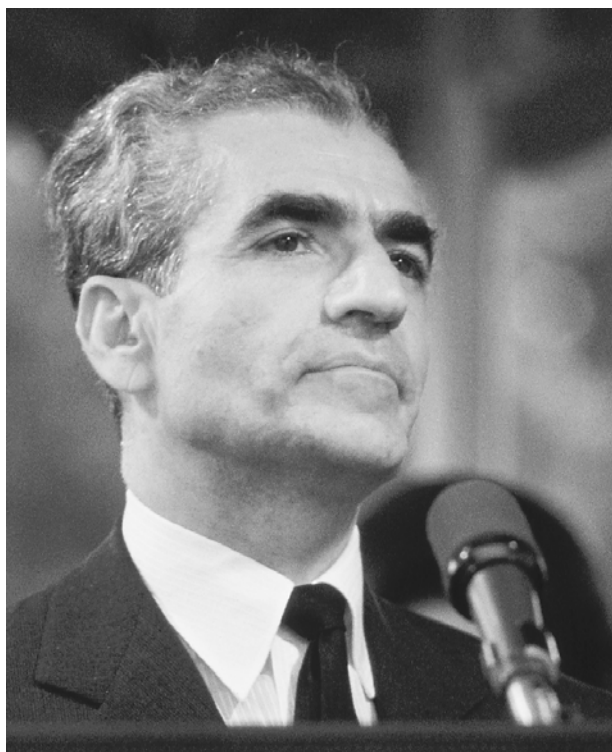
Cairo, Egypt

Iranian shah

Mohammad Reza Pahlavi was shah of Iran following his father's reign. He established many reforms to improve the country, but a revolution, led by Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini (1900–1989) in 1979, forced him into exile.

Crown prince at six

Mohammad Reza Pahlavi was born on October 27, 1919. His father, who was then an officer in the Persian Cossack regiment, became shah (king) of Iran as Reza Shah Pahlavi in 1926. Mohammad Reza was proclaimed crown prince at the age of six. From this time on he was carefully educated for his future role as shah by his stern father. In 1931 he was sent to Switzerland to attend Le Rosey school for boys. He was a good student but made few friends because, as a prince, he was not permitted to leave the school grounds. After returning to Iran in 1936, he entered a Tehran military school, graduating in 1938. In 1939 he married Princess Fawzia of Egypt. He developed a love for sports,



Mohammad Reza Pahlavi.

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enjoying soccer and skiing, and he later became a licensed pilot.

Replaces father as shah

In the fall of 1941 Pahlavi's father was forced to step down from the throne by British and Russian forces who had taken over the country after a short struggle. On September 27, 1941, he replaced his father as Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi. This was a confusing and dangerous time for Iran. Not only was World War II (1939–45) being fought, but Iran was squeezed between bitter enemies Russia and Britain. In addition, the vast resources of oil in Iran were eagerly

sought by the Russians, the Americans, and the British.

Pressure on Iran from the Soviet Union came from more than one side. The young shah was caught in a struggle between the pro-Soviet Tudeh Party, which wanted social revolution without the shah, and the pro-British National Will Party, which wanted the shah but no social change. The shah himself was not satisfied with either idea. After World War II the Soviet Union refused to remove its forces from Iran as it had promised. Instead the Soviet forces stayed to help a branch of the Persian Communist Party set up a separate government in the northwest province of Azerbaijan. Iran brought this issue to the United Nations (UN). After much discussion the Soviet Union left Azerbaijan in May 1946, and the shah became very popular.

Internal conflict

Iran's problems were not over; the oil question had not been solved. The new National Front Party, formed under the leadership of Dr. Mohammad Mosaddeq, stated that since Iran had refused to give oil rights to the Soviet Union, it should take them away from the British. The country was plunged into a crisis and by 1953, communications broke down between the shah and Prime Minister Mosaddeq and also among the prime minister, his cabinet, and the parliament. The crisis, in which the Tudeh Party was gaining the upper hand, forced the shah and Sorayya (his second wife) to leave the country. Nine days later, with U.S. aid, Mosaddeq was overthrown, and the shah returned in triumph.

Pahlavi returned with a new resolve to do things his way. He started what later was

called the “White Revolution.” After distributing the land among the peasants, he put forests and water under the control of the government, established profit-sharing plans for workers, gave more freedom to women, and established civil service programs. New industries were created, and Iran became one of the most stable countries in the Middle East.

Later years

On October 27, 1967, his forty-eighth birthday, and after twenty-six years as shah, Pahlavi was crowned as His Imperial Majesty Mohammad Reza Pahlavi Aryamehr, Shahan-shah of Iran. What made this crowning unique in Persian history was that his third wife, Farah, was crowned as empress, the first since the coming of Islam in the seventh century. Their six-year-old son, Reza, was declared crown prince.

During the 1970s, oil-rich countries such as Iran exercised much world power. It was also the strongest military country in the Middle East. However, the shah ruled with unlimited authority and his popularity began to decrease, especially among Muslims who were followers of Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini. The Ayatollah led a revolution in 1979, forcing the shah and his family into exile. Mohammed Reza Pahlavi died in Cairo, Egypt, on July 27, 1980.

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ARNOLD PALMER

Born: September 10, 1929

Youngstown, Pennsylvania

American golfer

Arnold Palmer was the first person to make one million dollars playing golf. Palmer attracted legions of fans—known as “Arnie’s Army”—who hung on his every shot, celebrating his successes and suffering his failures along with him.

Early years

Arnold Daniel Palmer was born in Youngstown, Pennsylvania, the oldest of Milfred “Deacon” Palmer and Doris Palmer’s four children. He grew up in nearby Latrobe, Pennsylvania. Palmer’s father gave golf lessons at the Latrobe Country Club and gave Arnold his first set of golf clubs when the boy was three years old. Arnold began to sneak onto Latrobe’s nine-hole course at every opportunity. He began working as a caddie (one who carries a golfer’s clubs) at the age of eleven.

While playing for the Latrobe High School golf team, Palmer lost only one match in four years. During his senior year he met



Arnold Palmer.

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Bud Worsham, whose brother was a professional golfer. At Worsham's urging, Palmer accepted a golf scholarship to Wake Forest College in North Carolina. During Palmer's senior year in college, Worsham was killed in a car accident. Shaken by Worsham's death, Palmer left school and joined the Coast Guard. In 1954 he began selling painting supplies to support his participation in amateur golf. He won the National Amateur championship that year.

Begins pro career

Palmer became a professional golfer in November 1954. A month later he married

Winnie Walzer, whom he had met while playing in an amateur tournament. In 1955 Palmer won the Canadian Open, earning twenty-four hundred dollars. He captured three tournaments in 1956 and four in 1957, when his earnings of twenty-eight thousand dollars made him the number five money-winner on the tour. Palmer won three tournaments during each of the next two seasons. One of his 1958 victories was the prestigious (honored) Masters, a tournament held every year in Augusta, Georgia.

In 1960, just as golf was beginning to receive regular television coverage, Palmer's spectacular come-from-behind wins in the Masters and the U.S. Open made him a national hero. He won the British Open in 1961 and 1962 and the Masters in 1962 and 1964. Palmer became one of the nation's most famous people. He became involved with many businesses, tried acting in television and movies, and wrote a new golf book every few years. Palmer became the richest athlete in the world, with a yearly income of more than one million dollars.

Golf legend

Although Palmer continued to win tournaments through the 1960s, some believed that his businesses were distracting him from golf. Still, in 1970 the Associated Press (AP) named him Athlete of the Decade (a ten-year period). Palmer won only a few minor Professional Golfers Association (PGA) titles during the 1970s. In 1980 he entered the Senior PGA tour and won the PGA Seniors championship. He also captured the 1981 United States Golf Association (USGA) Senior Open, and he took the PGA Seniors again in 1984. His last victory on the Senior tour was in

1988. In 1994 he made his final U.S. Open appearance in Oakmont, Pennsylvania, where the cheers of his “Army” brought him to tears. A similar scene occurred at his last appearance at the British Open in 1995.

Palmer has received virtually every national award in golf. He had sixty-one wins on the PGA tour, including seven major championships, and he is a member of the World Golf Hall of Fame, the American Golf Hall of Fame, and the PGA Hall of Fame. Palmer also used his fame to benefit charities, serving as Honorary National Chairman of the March of Dimes Birth Defects Foundation for twenty years. He played a major role in raising money to build the Arnold Palmer Hospital for Children and Women in Orlando, Florida. He also established a yearly fund-raising golf event for the Latrobe Area Hospital in 1992.

Later years

Palmer underwent surgery for cancer in January 1997. After he recovered, his wife was found to be suffering from a different type of cancer. She died in 1999. Palmer continued his involvement with golf. He testified on behalf of the PGA in a lawsuit brought by golfer Casey Martin, who was suing for the right to use a golf cart to move between holes while playing because of a problem with one of his legs. Palmer and others argued that the cart would give Martin an unfair advantage over other players.

In 1999 Palmer was one of several investors who purchased the Pebble Beach golf course in California for \$820 million. In 2001 he was criticized for signing an endorsement contract (payment to a person for public support of a company's products)

to promote a golf club that fails to meet USGA regulations. In April 2002 Palmer played in his forty-eighth and final Masters tournament in Augusta.

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PHILIPPUS AUREOLUS PARACELSUS

Born: November 10, 1493

Einsiedeln, Switzerland

Died: September 24, 1541

Salzburg, Austria

Swiss alchemist and doctor

Philippus Aureolus Paracelsus was a Swiss doctor and alchemist (medieval doctor) noted for founding medical chemistry. He also was the first physician to correctly describe a number of serious illnesses, including tuberculosis, a disease of the lungs.

Youth and early career

Theophrastus Bombastus von Hohenheim, later called Paracelsus, was born in Einsiedeln, Switzerland, on November 10,



Philippus Aureolus Paracelsus.

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1493. His father was a physician and instructed Theophrastus in Latin, botany, chemistry, and the history of religion. Theophrastus attended a mining school in Villach, where his father was appointed town physician. There he learned about metals, ores, and chemicals used to process them.

Theophrastus studied in Basel, Switzerland, and Italy, where he learned classical medical theory. He also studied at the University of Vienna, and then returned to Italy, where he received his doctorate in medicine from the University of Ferrara in 1515. While he was in Ferrara he took the name Paracelsus, which means "beyond Celsus." Celsus

was a doctor of ancient Rome who was admired by Paracelsus's fellow physicians.

Paracelsus resumed his study of metals briefly, and then began a series of travels that lasted to the end of his life. He was an army physician in Denmark from 1518 to 1521. In 1522 he joined the military forces in Venice, Italy. By 1526 he had settled briefly at Tübingen, Austria, where he gathered a small group of students. Later that year he traveled to Strasbourg, France, where he bought his citizenship and apparently intended to settle down.

New approaches to medicine

The classical theories of Aristotle (384–322 B.C.E.), a Greek philosopher, and Galen (c. 130–c. 200), a Greek physician, formed the basis of medicine at the time. Aristotle and Galen believed that the human body contained four elements (earth, air, fire, and water). These had to be balanced in order to maintain health. Paracelsus believed that diseases came from outside the body. He thought diseases could be cured by supplying the right chemical, as opposed to herbal medicines. These would restore internal balance. His successful cures served to support his theories and he acquired a reputation as a healer.

In 1526 Paracelsus went to Basel, Switzerland, to treat a patient. He stayed on and became the town physician. His responsibilities included lecturing at the university and supervising the local apothecaries (druggists). His lectures drew large audiences, but his teaching and style were unpopular with the authorities.

Paracelsus openly challenged traditional medical teachings. He preferred to lecture in

German rather than Latin, which was the traditional language of teaching. Also, he refused to prescribe the medicines of the local apothecaries. In 1528 Paracelsus had to flee to escape arrest and imprisonment.

Alchemy and philosophy

Paracelsus also wrote books about medicine, surgery, and cosmology (the nature of the universe). Paracelsus said that his outlook on the world was based on philosophy, astronomy, alchemy, and virtue. Alchemy was a medieval form of chemistry. Some people studied alchemy hoping to turn baser (lesser) metals into gold. In contrast, Paracelsus regarded alchemy as a spiritual science. He felt it required moral virtue on the part of the person who practiced it.

Paracelsus believed that for every evil there was a good that would eliminate it. Thus, he believed that there was a cure for every disease. He studied alchemy hoping to discover the means of restoring youth and prolonging life. He also thought that alchemy should not be restricted only to chemistry. He thought it was at work in all of nature. He felt strongly about relating his philosophy of nature to his religious beliefs.

After 1531 Paracelsus appears to have undergone a spiritual conversion. He gave up his material possessions. It is said he became like a beggar. He went to cities in Austria and Italy, where the plague (a highly contagious disease often carried by rats) was raging, and he attended to the sick. In this new spirit that drove him, Paracelsus gave special attention to the poor and the needy. His work was guided by a more mystical view of man and especially of the physician.

In 1540 Paracelsus went to Salzburg, Austria, but he was very sick. He died there on September 24, 1541.

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CHARLIE PARKER

Born: August 29, 1920

Kansas City, Kansas

Died: March 12, 1955

New York, New York

African American musician

Charlie Parker, American musician, was one of the most widely influential soloists in jazz history and one of the creators of a new style of playing called bop, or bebop.



Charlie Parker.

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Early life

Charles Christopher Parker Jr. was born in Kansas City, Kansas, on August 29, 1920, the only child of Charles and Addie Parker. The family moved to Kansas City, Missouri, in 1927. His mother, who raised him by herself after his father left the family, bought him a saxophone in 1931, and he started taking lessons in school. In the following years he played with several well-known local big bands, and in 1935 he left high school to become a full-time musician. By the age of fifteen Parker, known as "Yardbird" or "Bird" because of his love of eating chicken, was married and had begun using drugs. In 1941

he became a member of pianist Jay McShann's (1916–) band, with which he made his first commercial recordings.

Parker's earliest records reveal that he was already developing the more complicated musical approach that was characteristic of his mature work. This approach and his harsh tone made it difficult for the casual listener to follow the logic of his choruses. Also, with major changes taking place in the rhythm section, his music sometimes met with opposition or downright confusion. Parker played with extraordinary technical skill, which allowed him to express his ideas very clearly even at the most rapid tempo (the rate of speed of a musical piece).

New style of playing

At this time Parker also met and began performing with trumpet player Dizzy Gillespie (1917–1993), widely accepted as the cofounder with Parker of the jazz style that became known as bop or bebop (featuring complicated harmonies and quick tempos). In 1945 they recorded some of the greatest titles in the new style. Although younger musicians quickly realized Parker's genius, musicians who were older and more set in their ways did not approve of him or his playing. In 1946, as a result, Parker suffered a mental breakdown and was committed for six months to a sanitarium (an institution for rest and recovery). Upon his release he formed his own quintet (five-piece group) and performed with it for several years, mainly in the New York City area. He also toured with Norman Granz's "Jazz at the Philharmonic" and made trips to Paris, France, in 1949 and Scandinavia in 1950.

Parker composed a number of tunes that became jazz classics, though these were usu-

ally casually assembled items based on chord sequences of popular tunes. In terms of melodic skill, his recordings of ballads such as “Embraceable You” and “How Deep Is the Ocean” are even more revealing than his songs in the bebop style. Many other musicians imitated his playing, but his own achievements were unique.

In the last five years of Parker's life he was unable to work steadily as a result of physical and mental illness. On March 4, 1955, he made his final public appearance; he died eight days later in New York City.

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BLAISE PASCAL

Born: June 19, 1623
Clermont-Ferrand, France

Died: August 19, 1662

Paris, France

French mathematician, scientist, and philosopher

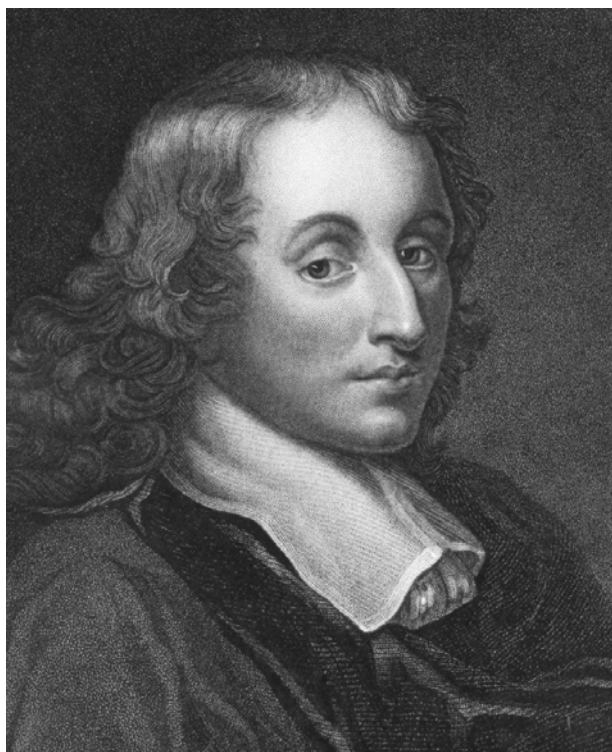
Blaise Pascal was an influential mathematical writer, a master of the French language, and a great religious philosopher (a person who seeks wisdom). He began making contributions to mathematics at a very young age. The computer programming language “Pascal” is named after him.

Young master of geometry

Blaise Pascal was born at Clermont-Ferrand, France, on June 19, 1623. His father, Étienne, was a civil servant and served as king's counselor. Blaise's mother, Antoinette, died in 1626. Blaise was three years old at the time and had two sisters, Gilberte and Jacqueline. In 1631 the family moved to Paris, France.

Blaise's father did not like the way school was taught at that time and instructed all three children at home himself. He placed special emphasis on learning Latin and Greek. He did not expose Blaise to geometry because he felt the topic was too enticing and attractive. Geometry is the branch of mathematics that deals with points, lines, angles, surfaces, and solids. He thought that if exposed to geometry and mathematics too soon, Blaise would abandon the study of classics.

This ban on mathematics merely served to make Blaise even more curious. On his own he experimented with geometrical figures. He invented his own names for geometrical terms because he had not been taught the standard terms. Some people believe that



Blaise Pascal.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Blaise was twelve years old when he started attending meetings of a mathematical academy with his father. Other scholars think that he did not attend the meetings until he was about sixteen. Whichever was the case, he was far younger than the adults who were there.

In 1640 the Pascal family moved to Rouen, France. Blaise was still taught mainly by his father. He worked very hard, but was frequently in poor health. During this time he developed a new theorem, or mathematical formula that can be proven, in geometry. He sometimes referred to this theorem as a “mystic hexagram.” It was quite different from

geometry that dealt with measured properties of figures. It was the foundation for an important, and, at the time, almost entirely undeveloped branch of mathematics.

In 1640, at age sixteen, Pascal wrote a book, *Essay on Conics*. It deals with the geometry of cones. He gave the mystic hexagram central importance in this book. At the age of nineteen, Pascal invented a calculating machine. It was able to add and subtract by having a person move a series of gears and cylinders. This was an early form of a computer.

Jansenists and Port Royal

In 1646 Pascal's father had an accident and was confined to his house. Some neighbors who were Jansenists came to visit him. The Jansenists were a religious group formed by Cornelius Jansen (1585–1638). Their beliefs were very different from the teachings of the Jesuits, who were the most influential group at the time. The Pascals began adopting the Jansenist beliefs. As a result, they received opposition from the local Jesuits.

After Étienne Pascal's death in 1651, Pascal's sister Jacqueline joined the Jansenists at their convent in Port Royal. Pascal continued to enjoy a more worldly life. He had a number of aristocratic (upper-class) and famous friends and money from his patrimony (inheritance) to support himself. In 1654, however, he completely converted to Jansenism, and joined his sister at the convent at Port Royal.

Provincial Letters

In 1655 the writer Antoine Arnauld (1612–1694) was formally condemned for

heretical teaching, a teaching that opposed the standard beliefs of the church. Pascal decided to defend Arnauld. He wrote a series of pamphlets that were supposed to look like letters between two friends, one in the city and one in the country or provinces. They came to be known as *The Provincial Letters* and poked fun at the Jesuits. They were very popular. The Jesuits tried without success to find the author. The wit, reason, eloquence, and humor of the letters made the Jesuits a laughingstock (object of ridicule).

The Pensées

When Pascal died in 1662, he left behind an unfinished theological work (relating to religious faith and practices), the *Pensées*. This was an apology, or defense, for Christianity. It was published eight years later by the Port Royal community in a thoroughly garbled and incoherent form. A reasonably authentic version first appeared in 1844. It deals with the great problems of Christian thought, faith versus reason, and free will.

The *Pensées*, unlike the *Provincial Letters*, were not highly edited and polished. The *Letters* give Pascal a place in literary history as the first of several great French writers practicing polite irony (humor in which words are used to mean the opposite of their true meaning) and satire (making fun of human faults and weakness). In contrast, some people think that the feeling of the *Pensées* makes it seem that it could almost have been written by another man. In them, reason is supposedly made to take second place to religion. Both books, however, are recognized as being among the great volumes in the history of religious thought.

Later mathematical and scientific work

Little is known of Pascal's personal life after his entry into Port Royal. Some of Pascal's scientific and mathematical works were not published until after his death. His "Treatise on the Equilibrium of Liquids," and his work on the links between theories involving liquids and gases, were enormously important in providing knowledge to develop air compressors, vacuum pumps, and hydraulic (run by the pressure created by forcing liquid through a small opening) elevators. Although he never wrote at great length on mathematics after entering Port Royal, the many short pieces that do survive are almost always concise and incisive.

The mathematical theory of probability (whether something is more likely to happen or not) made its first great step forward when Pascal and Pierre de Fermat (1601–1665) began writing to one another. They found that they both had come to similar conclusions independently. Pascal planned a treatise (a formal explanation of a theory) on the subject, but again only a fragment survived. It was published after his death. Pascal suffered increasingly from head pains after 1658. He died on August 19, 1662.

Pascal published many of his theorems without providing proofs as a challenge to other mathematicians. Solutions were found by some of the best mathematicians of the time, all rising to do their best by Pascal's leadership. The computer programming language "Pascal" is named after Blaise Pascal in honor of his early contributions to the science of computing. Thus, the influence of Blaise Pascal lives on today.

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LOUIS PASTEUR

Born: December 27, 1822

Dôle, France

Died: September 28, 1895

Paris, France

French chemist and biologist

The French chemist and biologist Louis Pasteur is famous for his germ theory and for the development of vaccines. He made major contributions to chemistry, medicine, and industry. His discovery that diseases are spread by microbes, which are living organisms—bacteria and viruses—that are invisible to the eye, saved countless lives all over the world.

The tanner's son

Louis Pasteur was born on December 27, 1822, in the small town of Dôle, France. His father was a tanner, a person who prepares animal skins to be made into leather. The men in Pasteur's family had been tanners back to 1763, when his great-grandfather set up his own tanning business. Part of the tanning process relies on microbes (tiny living organisms). In tanning, microbes prepare the leather, allowing it to become soft and strong. Other common products such as beer, wine, bread, and cheese depend on microbes as well. Yet, at the time Pasteur was a child, few people knew that microbes existed.

Pasteur's parents, Jean-Joseph Pasteur and Jeanne Roqui, taught their children the values of family loyalty, respect for hard work, and financial security. Jean-Joseph, who had received little education himself, wanted his son to become a teacher at the local lycée (high school). Pasteur attended the École Primaire (primary school), and in 1831 entered the Collège d'Arboix. He was regarded as an average student, who showed some talent as an artist. Nonetheless, the headmaster encouraged Pasteur to prepare for the École Normale Supérieure, a very large training college for teachers located in Paris. With this encouragement he applied himself to his studies. He swept the school prizes during the 1837 and 1838 school year.

Pasteur went to Paris in 1838 at the age of sixteen. His goal was to study and prepare for entering the École Normale. Yet, he returned to Arboix less than a month later, overwhelmed with homesickness. In August of 1840 he received his bachelor's degree in letters from the Collège Royal de Besançon and was appointed to tutor at the Collège. In

1842, at age twenty, he received his bachelor's degree in science. He then returned to Paris, and was admitted to the École Normale in the autumn of 1843. His doctoral thesis (a long essay resulting from original work in college) was on crystallography, the study of forms and structures of crystals.

Investigations into crystals

In 1848, while professor of physics at the lycée of Tournon, the minister of education granted Pasteur special permission for a leave of absence. During this time, Pasteur studied how certain crystals affect light. He became famous for this work. The French government made him a member of the Legion of Honor and Britain's Royal Society presented him with the Copley Medal.

Studies on fermentation

In 1852 Pasteur became chairman of the chemistry department at the University of Strasbourg, in Strasbourg, France. Here he began studying fermentation, a type of chemical process in which sugars are turned into alcohol. His work resulted in tremendous improvements in the brewing of beer and the making of wine. He also married at this time.

In 1854, at the age of thirty-one, Pasteur became professor of chemistry and dean of sciences at the new University of Lille. Soon after his arrival at Lille, a producer of vinegar from beet juice requested Pasteur's help. The vinegar producer could not understand why his vinegar sometimes spoiled and wanted to know how to prevent it.

Pasteur examined the beet juice under his microscope. He discovered it contained alcohol and yeast. The yeast was causing the



Louis Pasteur.

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beet juice to ferment. Pasteur then demonstrated that controlled heating of the beet juice destroyed the yeast, and prevented fermentation. This process, called "pasteurization," was eventually applied to preserve a number of foods such as cheese and milk. It also became the basis for dramatically reducing infection in the operating room.

Studies on silkworms

In 1865 Pasteur was asked to help the ailing silk industry in France. An epidemic among silkworms was ruining it. He took his microscope to the south of France and set to work. Four months later he had isolated the

microorganism causing the disease. After three years of intensive work he suggested methods for bringing it under control.

The theory of microbial disease

Pasteur's scientific triumphs coincided with personal and national tragedy. In 1865 his father died. His two daughters were lost to typhoid fever in 1866. Overworked and grief-stricken, Pasteur suffered a cerebral hemorrhage (a bleeding caused by a broken blood vessel in the brain) in 1868. Part of his left arm and leg were permanently paralyzed. Nevertheless, he pressed on.

Pasteur saw the trains of wounded men coming home from the Franco-German War (1870–71; war fought to prevent unification under German rule). He urged the military medical corps to adopt his theory that disease and infection were caused by microbes. The military medical corps unwillingly agreed to sterilize their instruments and bandages, treating them with heat to kill microbes. The results were spectacular, and in 1873 Pasteur was made a member of the French Academy of Medicine—a remarkable accomplishment for a man without a formal medical degree.

Animal studies

A particularly devastating outbreak of anthrax, a killer plague that affected cattle and sheep, broke out between 1876 and 1877. The *anthrax bacillus* (a type of microbe shaped like a rod) had already been identified by Robert Koch (1843–1910) in 1876. It had been argued that the bacillus did not carry the disease, but that a toxic (poisonous) substance associated with it did. Pasteur proved that the bacillus itself was the disease agent, or the carrier of the disease.

In 1881 Pasteur had convincing evidence that gentle heating of *anthrax bacilli* could so weaken its strength that it could be used to inoculate animals. Inoculation is a process of introducing a weakened disease agent into the body. The body gets a mild form of the disease, but becomes immunized (strengthened against) the actual disease. Pasteur inoculated one group of sheep with the vaccine and left another untreated. He then injected both groups with the *anthrax bacillus*. The untreated sheep died and the treated sheep lived.

Pasteur also used inoculation to conquer rabies. Rabies is a fatal disease of animals, particularly dogs, which is transmitted to humans through a bite. It took five years to isolate and culture the rabies virus microbe. Finally, in 1884, in collaboration with other investigators, Pasteur perfected a method of growing the virus in the tissues of rabbits. The virus could be weakened by exposing it to sterile air. A vaccine, or weakened form of the microbe, could then be prepared for injection. The success of this method was greeted with excitement all over the world.

The question soon arose as to how the rabies vaccine would act on humans. In 1885 a nine-year-old boy, Joseph Meister, was brought to Pasteur. He was suffering from fourteen bites from a rabid dog. With the agreement of the child's physician, Pasteur began his treatment with the vaccine. The injections continued over a twelve-day period, and the child recovered.

Honors from the world

In 1888 a grateful France founded the Pasteur Institute. It was destined to become one of the most productive centers of biological study in the world.

In 1892 Pasteur's seventieth birthday was the occasion of a national holiday. A huge celebration was held at the Sorbonne. Unfortunately Pasteur was too weak to speak to the delegates who had gathered from all over the world. His son read his speech, which ended: "Gentlemen, you bring me the greatest happiness that can be experienced by a man whose invincible belief is that science and peace will triumph over ignorance and war. . . . Have faith that in the long run . . . the future will belong not to the conquerors but to the saviors of mankind."

On September 28, 1895, Pasteur died in Paris. His last words were: "One must work; one must work. I have done what I could." He was buried in a crypt in the Pasteur Institute. Years later Joseph Meister, the boy Pasteur saved from rabies, worked as a guard at his tomb.

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LINUS PAULING

Born: February 28, 1901
Portland, Oregon

Died: August 19, 1994

Big Sur, California

American chemist

The American chemist Linus Pauling was awarded the Nobel Prize twice.

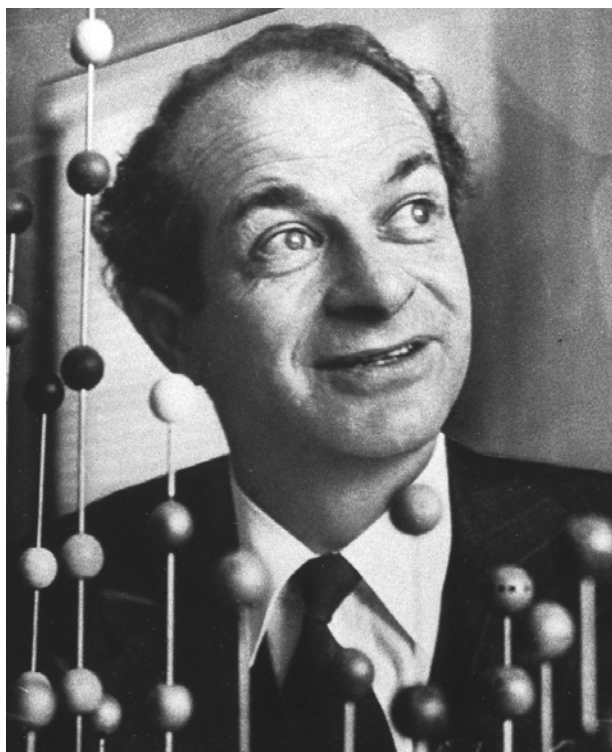
Through his research he clarified much about the structure of the smallest units of matter. His studies on sickle cell anemia (a disease that mainly affects African Americans) helped to create the field of molecular biology. He founded the science of orthomolecular medicine, which is based on the idea that diseases result from chemical imbalances and can be cured by restoring proper levels of chemical substances.

The early years

Linus Carl Pauling was born in Portland, Oregon, on February 28, 1901. He was the first of three children born to Herman Henry William Pauling, a druggist, and Lucy Isabelle Pauling. The family moved several times as Herman Pauling struggled to make a living.

Linus was a shy but curious child. He collected insects and minerals as he wandered through the woods. He read continuously. His interest in science was apparently stimulated by his friend, Lloyd Jeffress, during his grammar school years. Jeffress kept a small chemistry laboratory in a corner of his bedroom, where he performed simple experiments. Pauling was intrigued by these experiments and decided to become a chemical engineer.

Herman Pauling died in 1910, when Linus was nine. Linus did many odd jobs to help support his mother and sisters after his father died. He delivered milk, washed



Linus Pauling.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

dishes, and worked in a machine shop. During high school Pauling pursued his interest in chemistry, performing experiments using material he “borrowed” from an abandoned metal company, where his grandfather was a security guard.

College

In the fall of 1917 Pauling entered Oregon Agricultural College (OAC), now Oregon State University, in Corvallis, Oregon. There he studied how the physical and chemical properties of substances are related to the structure of the atoms (basic units of matter) and molecules of which they are composed.

A molecule is the smallest particle into which a substance can be divided and still have the chemical identity of the original substance.

During his senior year, Pauling met Ava Helen Miller while teaching chemistry in a home-economics class. They were married June 17, 1923, and later had four children. Pauling received his bachelor's degree from OAC on June 5, 1922. He began attending the California Institute of Technology (Cal Tech) in Pasadena the following fall. He received his doctorate, *summa cum laude* (with highest honors), in chemistry in 1925.

After college

After graduation Pauling traveled in Europe for two years, studying in the new field of quantum mechanics. The science of quantum mechanics is based on the idea that particles can sometimes behave like waves, and waves can sometimes act like particles that have no mass. In the fall of 1927 Pauling was appointed assistant professor on Cal Tech's faculty of theoretical chemistry. He was later made a full professor of chemistry. He stayed at Cal Tech until 1963. In addition, from 1937 to 1958, he headed the Gates and Crellin Chemical Laboratories.

Chemical structure

The central theme of Pauling's work was always understanding the properties of chemical substances in relation to their structure. He began by determining the structure of various inorganic (nonliving) compounds. He then tried to understand the rules that govern the structure of molecules. He went on to predict the chemical and physical properties of atoms and ions. (Ions are atoms or groups of atoms that have an electrical charge.)

In 1930 Pauling and R. B. Corey began to study the structure of amino acids and small peptides. Amino acids are the organic acids that make up proteins. Peptides are compounds made up of two or more amino acids. On April 6, 1931, Pauling published the first major paper on this topic ("The Nature of the Chemical Bond") and was awarded the American Chemical Society's Langmuir Prize for "the most noteworthy work in pure science done by a man thirty years of age or less."

In 1939 Pauling published his book *The Nature of the Chemical Bond and the Structure of Molecules and Crystals*. This book has been considered by many as one of the most important works in the history of chemistry. The ideas presented in the book and related papers are the primary basis upon which Pauling was awarded the Nobel Prize for Chemistry in 1954.

Sickle cell anemia

In the mid-1930s Pauling turned his interest to the structure of biological molecules. In 1936 he and C. D. Coryell discovered that the magnetic properties of hemoglobin (the protein in red blood cells that contains iron and carries oxygen) change upon being exposed to oxygen. These studies led to the 1949 proposal that humans may manufacture more than one kind of adult hemoglobin. Some hemoglobin tends to clump together and does not function properly when it is exposed to less oxygen. This is a disease called sickle cell anemia. This was the first documented instance of a "molecular" disorder.

World peace

The 1940s were a decade of significant change in Pauling's life. While on a 1947 trip

to Europe he decided that he would raise the issue of world peace in every speech he made in the future. In 1957 he organized a petition calling for an end to nuclear bomb testing. In January of the following year he presented this petition at the United Nations. Over eleven thousand scientists from all over the world had signed it. In 1958 he published his views on the military threat facing the world in his book *No More War!*

Pauling's views annoyed many in the scientific and political communities. He was often punished for these views. In 1952 the U.S. State Department three times denied him a passport to attend an important scientific convention in England. In 1960 he was called before the Internal Security Committee of the U.S. Senate to explain his antiwar activities. However, nothing could keep Pauling from protesting, writing, speaking, and organizing conferences against the world's continuing militarism. In recognition of these efforts, Pauling was awarded the 1963 Nobel Prize for Peace.

Vitamin C and beyond

Pauling's long association with Cal Tech ended in 1963, when he became a research professor at the Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions in Santa Barbara, California. He also went on to teach chemistry at the University of California in San Diego, California, and at Stanford University in Palo Alto, California.

In 1966 Pauling began to explore the possible effects of vitamin C in preventing colds. He summarized his views in the 1970 book *Vitamin C and The Common Cold*. His work helped establish the science of orthomolecular medicine. This field is based on

the idea that substances normally present in the body, such as vitamin C, can be used to prevent disease and illness.

In 1972 Pauling cofounded the Institute of Orthomolecular Medicine, a non-profit organization for scientific research. It was later named the Linus Pauling Institute of Science and Medicine.

In 1974 Pauling testified before the U.S. Senate Subcommittee on Health on food supplement legislation. He argued for controls over vitamins but did not want to classify them as drugs.

In 1986 he published *How To Live Longer and Feel Better*. In 1990, along with Daisaku Ikeda Seimei, he published *In Quest of the Century of Life—Science and Peace and Health*.

Pauling received many awards during his successful career. He was a member of the National Academy of Sciences and of the British Royal Society.

Pauling died of cancer on August 19, 1994, at his ranch outside Big Sur, California. Since his death, research continues on every aspect of his earlier discoveries, especially his theory about vitamin C and its effects on disease and the human body. His scientific career and work for world peace show us what a courageous imagination and approach can accomplish.

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LUCIANO PAVAROTTI

Born: October 12, 1935

Modena, Italy

Italian opera singer

Luciano Pavarotti is possibly the most operatic tenor (the highest male singing voice) since Enrico Caruso (1873–1921). He is noted for combining accuracy of pitch and quality of sound production with a natural musicality.

His early years

Luciano Pavarotti was born on the outskirts of Modena in north-central Italy on October 12, 1935. He speaks fondly of his childhood, but the family had little money. Pavarotti, his parents, and his sister were crowded into a two-room apartment. His father was a baker, and his mother worked in a cigar factory. In 1943, because of World War II (1939–45; when France, Great Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union fought against Germany, Japan, and Italy) the family had to leave the city. For the following

year they rented a single room from a farmer in the neighboring countryside.

Pavarotti's earliest musical influences were his father's recordings featuring the popular tenors of the day. At around the age of nine he began singing with his father in a small local church choir. He took a few voice lessons at the time, but he has said they were not significant. After a normal childhood with an interest in sports, especially soccer, he graduated from the Schola Magistrale and faced the dilemma of choosing a career.

Pavarotti was interested in pursuing a career as a professional soccer player, but his mother convinced him to train as a teacher. He taught in an elementary school for two years, but his interest in music finally won out. Recognizing the risk involved, his father reluctantly gave his consent. He agreed that Pavarotti would be given free room and board until age thirty. After that time, if he had not succeeded as a singer, he would earn a living by any means that he could.

The beginning of his career

Pavarotti began serious study in 1954 at the age of nineteen with Arrigo Pola, a respected teacher and professional tenor in Modena. Pola knew of the family's money problems and offered to teach Pavarotti for free. At about this time Pavarotti met Adua Veroni, whom he married in 1961.

When Pola moved to Japan two and a half years later, Pavarotti became a student of Ettore Campogalliani, who was also teaching the now well-known soprano (the highest female singing voice), Pavarotti's childhood friend Mirella Freni (1935–). During his years of study Pavarotti held part-time jobs in



Luciano Pavarotti.

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order to help sustain himself—first as an elementary school teacher and then, when he failed at that, as an insurance salesman.

The first six years of study resulted in nothing more significant than a few recitals, all in small towns, and all without pay. When a nodule (a small lump) developed on Pavarotti's vocal chords causing a "disastrous" concert in Ferrara, Italy, he decided to give up singing. After this episode, Pavarotti's voice almost immediately improved. He feels this was due to a psychological release connected with this decision. Whatever the reason, the nodule not only disappeared but, as he related in his autobiography, "Everything I

had learned came together with my natural voice to make the sound I had been struggling so hard to achieve.”

Becomes a success

Pavarotti won the Achille Peri Competition in 1961, for which the first prize was the role of Rodolfo in a production of Puccini's *La Bohème* to be given in Reggio Emilia on April 28 of that year. Although his debut was a success, a certain amount of maneuvering was necessary to secure his next few contracts. A well-known agent, Alesandro Ziliani, had been in the audience and, after hearing Pavarotti, offered to represent him. When *La Bohème* was to be produced in Lucca, Italy, Ziliani told the management that they could only have the services of a well-known singer they wanted if they took Pavarotti in a package deal.

Pavarotti's concert at Covent Garden, London, England, in the fall of 1963 also resulted from an indirect invitation. Giuseppe di Stefano had been scheduled for a series of performances, but the management was aware that he frequently canceled on short notice. They needed someone whose quality matched the rest of the production, yet who would learn the role without any assurance that he would get to sing it. Pavarotti agreed. When di Stefano canceled after one and a half performances, Pavarotti stepped in for the remainder of the series with great success.

Pavarotti's debut in 1965 at La Scala, in Milan, Italy, again as Rodolfo, came at the suggestion of Herbert von Karajan, who had been conducting *La Bohème* there for two years and had, as Pavarotti said, “run out of tenors.” Pavarotti was somewhat resentful

that the invitation did not come directly from the La Scala management. Also in 1965 Pavarotti made his American debut in Miami, Florida, as Edgardo in Donizetti's *Lucia di Lammermoor*. Illness troubled him during his New York City debut at the Metropolitan Opera in November 1968 and compelled him to cancel after the second act of the second performance.

Nineteenth-century Italian opera comprises most of Pavarotti's repertoire (group of songs that one can sing), particularly Puccini, Verdi, and Donizetti, whose music he found the most comfortable to sing. He sings few recitals, because he regards them as more strenuous than opera.

Expands his career

Very few opera singers are convincing actors and Pavarotti is not among them. However, by the mid-1980s he spent nearly as much time on practicing his acting as on his singing. In 1972 he starred in a commercial film, *Yes, Giorgio*. His solo album of Neapolitan songs, “O Sole Mio,” outsold any other record by a classical singer.

Throughout the 1980s Pavarotti strengthened his status as one of the opera world's leading figures. Televised performances of Pavarotti in many of his greatest and favorite roles helped him broaden his appeal. He was able to reach millions of viewers each time one of his opera performances or solo concerts was seen. He also began to show increasing flexibility as a recording artist. He recorded classical operas and Italian folk songs. He also recorded contemporary popular songs with composer and conductor Henry Mancini (1924–1994). He became the world's third-highest top-selling musician,

right behind Madonna (1958–) and Elton John (1947–).

By the time Pavarotti proposed and staged the first “Three Tenors” concert in Rome, he was unabashedly (boldly, without disguise) thrilled with his immense popularity. “I want to be famous everywhere,” he told *Newsweek*.

Pavarotti received his share of criticism and rejection as well. He was barred from contracts with the Lyric Opera of Chicago in 1989 because he canceled many performances due to bad health. He was sued by the British Broadcasting Company (BBC) in 1992 for selling the network a lip-synched (pretending to sing to a pre-recorded track) concert. He was booed at La Scala during a performance of *Don Carlo*. He finally canceled tours and took several months off to rest.

Pavarotti returned to the stage in 1993 with a concert before five hundred thousand people in Central Park, in New York City. Critics accused him of blatant commercialism (overly concerned with making money), but the crowds loved the performances. In 1997 the three tenors—Plácido Domingo (1941–), Jose Carreras (1947–) and Pavarotti—toured to mixed reviews, but delighted audiences who seemed unwilling to let Pavarotti even think of retiring.

In 2000 prosecutors in Bologna, Italy, tried Pavarotti on tax fraud charges. They claimed that although Pavarotti lived in Monte Carlo he still had many property holdings in Italy. Pavarotti was accused of owing almost \$5 million and could have spent as much as a year and a half in prison. In the end, he was acquitted (had charges dismissed).

In 2002 Pavarotti continued to drop hints that he would be retiring soon, but had

not given any specific date. Through his talent and his desire to reach out to audiences everywhere, Pavarotti has been an important figure in bringing the world of opera to a great variety of people.

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IVAN PAVLOV

Born: September 26, 1849

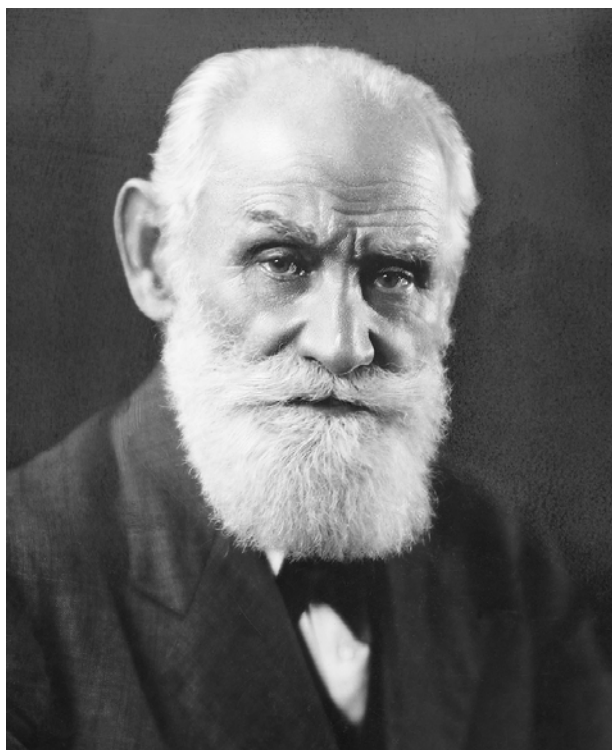
Ryazan, Russia

Died: February 27, 1936

Leningrad (now St. Petersburg), Russia

Russian physiologist

Ivan Pavlov was a Russian physiologist (someone who studies the physical and chemical workings of living things) and a leader in the study of blood circulation, digestion, and conditioned reflexes (unconscious physical reactions to outside forces that are the result of repetition of those forces and reactions). He believed that he estab-



Ivan Pavlov.

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lished the physiological (relating to the physical and chemical workings of living things) nature of psychological (relating to the behavior of the mind) activity.

The early years

Ivan Petrovich Pavlov was born in Ryazan, Russia, on September 26, 1849, the son of a poor parish priest, from whom Pavlov acquired a lifelong love for physical labor and for learning. He loved to work with his father in gardens and orchards and this early interest in plants lasted his entire life. At the age of nine or ten, Pavlov suffered from a fall that affected his general health and

delayed his formal education. When he was eleven he entered the second grade of the church school at Ryazan. In 1864 he went to the Theological Seminary of Ryazan, a school for training priests. There he studied religion, classical languages, and philosophy, and he developed an interest in science.

Making of a physiologist

In 1870 Pavlov was admitted to the University of St. Petersburg (Leningrad) in Russia. He studied animal physiology as his major and chemistry as his minor. At the university he studied organic chemistry (the science that studies how living things are made) and inorganic chemistry (the science that studies how nonliving things are made). In this way he learned about what makes up both nonliving things and plants and animals. He also learned the techniques of scientific investigation. Scientific investigation starts with asking a question; the scientist then gathers information about the question and creates a statement that might describe the answer; finally, the scientist tests the possible answer through observation.

After graduating from the University of St. Petersburg, Pavlov entered the Military Medical Academy in 1881. He worked there as a laboratory assistant for two years. In 1877, while still at the academy, he published his first work. It was about the regulation of the circulation of blood by reflexes (any unconscious or involuntary action of the body). Two years later he completed his course at the academy. He successfully competed in an examination that was given to the entire school. By winning this competition, Pavlov was given a scholarship to continue postgraduate study at the academy.

In 1881 Pavlov married Serafima Karchevskais. He spent the next decade at the academy. In 1883 he completed his thesis (a long essay resulting from original research in college) on the nerves of the heart. Shortly afterwards he received the degree of doctor of medicine. During the 1880s Pavlov perfected his techniques of scientific investigation. This work made his later important discoveries possible.

In 1890 Pavlov was appointed chairman of pharmacology (science of preparing medicines) at the academy. A year later he became director of the Department of Physiology of the Institute of Experimental Medicine. In 1895 he accepted the chair of physiology at the academy, which he held until 1925. For the next forty-five years Pavlov pursued his studies on the digestive glands and conditioned reflexes.

Scientific contributions

During the first phase of his scientific activity (1874–1888), Pavlov studied the circulatory system. He focused on how blood pressure changes under various conditions and how heart activity is regulated. He saw that the blood pressure of dogs in his laboratory hardly changed, whether they were fed dry food or excessive amounts of meat broth.

Pavlov observed special fibers called nerves that carry sensations and create motion throughout the body. His observations led him to state that the rhythm and the strength of the heartbeat is regulated by four specific nerve fibers. It is now generally accepted that two nerves, the vagus and sympathetic, produce the effects on the heart that Pavlov noticed.

In his second phase of scientific work (1888–1902), Pavlov concentrated on the nerves directing the digestive glands. In 1888 he discovered the nerves of the pancreas that control the flow of insulin. Insulin is a substance that regulates the digestion of starches and sugars. In 1889 Pavlov discovered the nerves controlling the gastric (stomach) glands. For this work Pavlov received the 1904 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine.

The final phase of Pavlov's scientific career (1902–1936) focused on determining how conditioned reflexes affect the brain. Pavlov had observed that his laboratory dogs would secrete saliva and gastric juices before meat was actually given to them. The sight, odor, or even the footsteps of the attendant bringing the meat were enough to trigger the flow of saliva.

Pavlov realized that the dogs were responding to activity associated with their feeding. In 1901 he termed this response a "conditioned reflex." A conditioned reflex is a learned behavior, one that happens in response to something. This is different than an unconditioned reflex. An example of an unconditioned reflex is the pupil of the eye getting smaller when a person looks at a bright light. The person does not learn how to make the pupil of the eye smaller. It simply happens automatically.

Pavlov's important lectures, papers, and speeches dealing with conditioned reflexes and the brain were presented between 1923 and 1927. He discovered that conditioned responses can be wiped out—at least temporarily—if not reinforced (strengthened through being rewarded).

In 1918 Pavlov had an opportunity to study several cases of mental illness. He

described a certain type of schizophrenia, a very serious mental illness, as being caused by weakening of brain cells. He thought the illness was a means of protecting already weakened brain cells from further destruction.

Pavlov's last scientific article was written for the *Great Medical Encyclopedia* in 1934. In it he discussed his idea that there are two systems of nerve fibers. The first system receives signals or impressions of the external world through sense organs. Both humans and animals have this system. The second system deals with the signals of the first system and involves words and thoughts. Only humans have this system. Conditioned reflexes play a significant role in both nerve systems. Pavlov thought the conditioned reflex was the main way in which living things adapt to their surroundings.

Philosophy and outlook

Pavlov was opposed to extreme political positions of any kind. He did not welcome the Russian Revolution of 1917, which destroyed the old system of the czars, or Russian supreme rulers, and replaced it with a Communist system. In a Communist society, property is held by the state and the state controls the distribution of goods. Pavlov was hostile to the new Communist system. Even so, Premier Lenin (1870–1924; the leader of the Soviet Union) signed a special decree in 1921, assuring that Pavlov would have support for his scientific work. In 1930 the government built him a laboratory. By 1935 Pavlov had become reconciled to the Communist system. He declared that the “government, too, is an experimenter but in an immeasurably higher category.”

Pavlov became seriously ill in 1935 but recovered sufficiently to participate at the Fif-

teenth International Physiological Congress. Later he attended the Neurological Congress in London, England. He died on February 27, 1936.

Pavlov's work on conditioned reflexes and brain activity lives on today. It formed the basis of behaviorism. Behaviorism is an important branch of psychology that deals with observing the behaviors and habits of humans and animals.

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ANNA PAVLOVA

Born: January 31, 1881

St. Petersburg, Russia

Died: January 22, 1931

The Hague, Netherlands

Russian dancer

Anna Pavlova was in her time—and is perhaps even now—the most famous dancer in the world. Pavlova carried on long, globe-covering tours, creating new ballet audiences everywhere.

Uncertain background

Anna Pavlova was born on January 31, 1881, in St. Petersburg, Russia, the daughter of Lyubov Feodorovna, a washerwoman. Her father's identity is not known. When Anna was very small, her mother married reserve soldier Matvey Pavlov, who died when Anna was two years old. She and her mother were very poor, and they spent the summers with Anna's grandmother. According to Pavlova, she wanted to be a dancer from the age of eight, when she attended a performance of *The Sleeping Beauty* at the Maryinsky Theatre. Two years later she was accepted as a student at St. Petersburg's Imperial Ballet School. This school for classical dancers offered its students lifelong material protection; the czar (the ruler of Russia) Alexander III (1845–1894) was its main supporter. In return, the school demanded complete physical dedication.

Although the young Pavlova was considered frail and not exactly beautiful, she was nevertheless very supple (able to bend and twist with ease and grace). Her talents impressed ballet master Marius Petipa, who was to become her favorite teacher. Pavlova also learned from other famous Maryinsky teachers and choreographers (those who create and arrange dance performances) such as Christian Johanssen, Pavel Gerdt, and Enrico Cecchetti, who provided her with a classical foundation based on ballet tradition. Pavlova made her company debut at the Maryinsky in September 1899. Competition among dancers was intense, but Anna Pavlova soon attracted attention with the poetic and expressive quality of her performances.

Busy touring schedule

Pavlova's first of many tours (it is estimated that she traveled over four hundred



Anna Pavlova.

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thousand miles in the days before air travel and was seen by millions) was to Moscow, Russia, in 1907. In February 1910 Pavlova, performing with the brawny Moscow dancer Mikhail Mordkin (1880–1944), made her first appearance in America, at the Metropolitan Opera House. Most of the American audiences had never before seen classical ballet, and critics did not know how to describe what Pavlova did on stage, although all agreed that it was wonderful.

Although these early tours were undertaken with the czar's consent, Pavlova's final trip to Russia occurred in the summer of 1914. She was traveling through Germany on

her way to London, England, when Germany declared itself at war with her homeland in August 1914. Pavlova's protection from and obligations to the czar and his Maryinsky Theatre had come to an end.

From this point until her death, Pavlova continued to make long, exhausting tours, always with her own company—whose members came from different countries and were not always as talented as her—to support. She returned to America several times; she went to South America in 1917; in 1919 she visited Bahia and Salvador. A 1920–21 American tour represented Pavlova's fifth major tour of the United States in ten years, and in 1923 the company traveled to Japan, China, India, Burma, and Egypt. South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand were given a glimpse of Pavlova in 1926, and the years 1927 and 1928 were dedicated to a European tour.

Kept performing the classics

Although Pavlova's performances changed and were influenced by exposure to foreign cultures and new methods of dancing, she remained a somewhat conservative (not trying many new things) performer. Her company continued to perform several of the great ballet classics, such as *Giselle* and *The Sleeping Beauty*; her own popular signature pieces were the *Bacchanale*, a duet created by her former fellow-student Mikhail Fokine, and her eerily beautiful *The Swan*.

Pavlova's ability to accept her role as spokesperson for her art, often with good humor and always with devotion and poise, brought vast audiences to her and eventually to the ballet itself. She was willing to perform in different venues, from the most famous theaters of Europe to London's music halls or

even New York's gigantic Hippodrome. Pavlova's private days were spent at Ivy House in London, where she kept a large collection of birds and animals, including a pair of pet swans. Her companion, manager, and perhaps husband (Pavlova gave different accounts of the exact nature of their relationship) was Victor Dandr , a fellow native of St. Petersburg.

Pavlova died in The Hague, Netherlands, on January 22, 1931. She had performed constantly until her death; her final words were to ask for her Swan costume to be prepared and, finally, "Play that last measure softly."

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I. M.
PEI

Born: April 26, 1917

Canton, China

Chinese-born American architect

Chinese American architect, I. M. Pei, directed for nearly forty years one of the most successful architectural practices in the United States. Known for his dramatic use of concrete and glass, Pei counts among his most famous buildings the East Wing of the National Gallery of Art in Washington, D.C., the John Hancock Tower in Boston, Massachusetts, and the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame Museum in Cleveland, Ohio.

Childhood

Ieoh Ming Pei was born in Canton, China, on April 26, 1917. His early childhood was spent in Canton and Hong Kong, where his father worked as director of the Bank of China. In the late 1920s, after the death of Pei's mother, the family moved to Shanghai, China, where Pei attended St. Johns Middle School. His father, who had many British banking connections, encouraged his son to attend college in England, but Pei decided to move to the United States in order to study architecture at the University of Pennsylvania. As a youth, Pei watched the growing cityscape in Shanghai, which planted the seeds for his love of architecture. Upon his arrival in 1935, however, he found that the University of Pennsylvania's course work, with its heavy emphasis on fine draftsmanship, was not well suited to his interest in structural engineering. He enrolled instead in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) in Boston, Massachusetts.

While at MIT, Pei considered pursuing a degree in engineering, but was convinced by Dean William Emerson to stick with architecture. Pei graduated with a bachelor's degree in architecture in 1940, winning the Ameri-



I. M. Pei.

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can Institute of Architects Gold Medal and the Alpha Rho Chi (the fraternity of architects). Pei considered going to Europe or returning to China, but with both regions engulfed in war, he decided to remain in Boston and work as a research assistant at the Bemis Foundation (1940–1941).

From professor to architect

In 1942 Pei married Eileen Loo, a Chinese student recently graduated from Wellesley College. After the wedding Pei moved to Cambridge, Massachusetts, where Eileen enrolled in Harvard's Graduate School of Landscape Architecture. Through her sugges-

tion, Pei enrolled in the Harvard Graduate School of Design in the summer of 1942. There Pei was introduced to the work of Europe's leading architects. He absorbed their ideas about designing unadorned (without decorations) buildings in abstract shapes—buildings that exposed their systems of support and materials of construction.

Pei's work at Harvard was interrupted in early 1943 when he was called to serve on the National Defense Research Committee in Princeton, New Jersey. He maintained his contacts in Cambridge, however, and between 1943 and 1945 formed informal partnerships with two other students of Walter Gropius (1883–1969), E. H. Duhart and Frederick Roth. With these men, Pei designed several low-cost modern houses that were intended to be built of prefabricated (built in advance) plywood panels and “plug-in” room modules. Several of these designs were awarded recognition in *Arts and Architecture* magazine and thus served to give Pei his first national exposure.

In 1946 Pei was appointed assistant professor after obtaining his master's degree in architecture. While teaching, he worked in the Boston office of architect Hugh Stubbins from 1946 to 1948. Pei's career as a Harvard professor ended in 1948 when, at the age of thirty-one, he was hired to direct the architectural division of Webb and Knapp, a huge New York City contracting firm owned by the wealthy businessman William Zeckendorf. A bold developer with tremendous capital (money from business), Zeckendorf specialized in buying run-down urban lots and building modern high rise apartments and offices.

As architect of Webb and Knapp, Pei oversaw the design of some of the most

extensive urban development schemes in the mid-twentieth century, including the Mile High Center in Denver, Colorado, and Hyde Park Redevelopment in Chicago, Illinois (both 1954–1959). These projects gave Pei the opportunity to work on a large scale and with big budgets. Moreover, he learned how to work with community, business, and government agencies. In his words, he learned to consider “the big picture.”

His own architectural firm

By mutual agreement, Pei and his staff of some seventy designers split from Webb and Knapp in 1955 to become I. M. Pei & Associates, an independent firm, but one which still initially relied on Zeckendorf as its chief client. It was for Zeckendorf, in fact, that Pei and his partners designed some of their most ambitious works—Place Ville Marie, the commercial center of Montreal, Canada, (1956–1965); Kips Bay Plaza, the Manhattan, New York, apartment complex (1959–1963); and Society Hill, a large housing development in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (1964).

In terms of style, Pei's work at this time was strongly influenced by Mies van der Rohe (1886–1969). Certainly the apartment towers at Kips Bay and Society Hill owe much to Mies's earlier slab-like skyscrapers sheathed in glass grids. But unlike Mies, who supported his towers with frames of steel, Pei experimented with towers of pre-cast concrete window frames laid on one another like blocks. This system proved to be quick to construct and required no added fireproof lining or exterior sheathing, making it relatively inexpensive. The concrete frames also had the aesthetic (having to do with appearance) advantage of looking “muscular” and permanent.

During the 1960s Pei continued to build “skin-and-bones” office and apartment towers, but he also began to get commissions for other types of buildings that allowed him more artistic expression. Among the first of these was the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) in Boulder, Colorado (1961–1967). Distinguished by a series of unusual hooded towers, and photographically (having to do with photo-like qualities) situated against the backdrop of the Rocky Mountains, the NCAR complex helped to establish Pei as a designer of serious artistic intent.

Triangles and curtains of glass

Of Pei's many museums, he became best known for the East Wing of the National Gallery in Washington, D.C. (1968–1978). Located on a distinct but oddly shaped site, Pei cleverly divided the plan into two triangular sections—one containing a series of intimate gallery spaces and the other housing administrative and research areas. He connected these sections with a dramatic sky-lit central court, bridged at various levels by free-floating passageways. Technological advances are seen on the exterior, where space-age rubber gaskets have been inserted between the blocks of marble to prevent cracks from developing in the walls.

Although Pei's reputation was slightly tarnished in the mid-1970s when plates of glass mysteriously fell out of his John Hancock Tower in Boston, Pei was still considered a master of curtain glass construction in the 1980s. He demonstrated this again in the glass-sheathed Allied Bank Tower in Dallas (1985) and later worked on a well-publicized glass pyramid built in the courtyard of the

Louvre Museum in Paris (1987). But his magnificent work in glass would not stop there. In September of 1995, The Rock and Roll Hall of Fame Museum was dedicated in Cleveland, Ohio.

Among Pei's numerous awards, he places personal significance on receiving the Medal of Liberty from President Ronald Reagan (1911–) at the Statue of Liberty. To him, it is a symbol of acceptance and respect from the American people. When not designing buildings, Pei enjoys gardening around his home in Katonah, New York. He has four children, two of whom work as architects in his busy office on Madison Avenue.

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PELÉ

Born: October 23, 1940

Tres Coracoes, Brazil

Brazilian soccer star

Pelé, called “the Black Pearl,” was one of the greatest soccer players in the history of the game. With a career total of 1,280 games, he may have been the world's most popular athlete in his prime.



Pelé.

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A young talent

Edson Arantes Do Nascimento, who took the name Pelé, was born on October 23, 1940, in Tres Coracoes, Brazil, the son of a minor league soccer player. Pelé grew up in an extremely poor neighborhood, where one of the only sources of entertainment for a poor boy was to play soccer, barefoot and with a makeshift ball. Many players on the Brazilian soccer fields gained nicknames that had no apparent meaning. His father was dubbed “Dondinho” and young Edson took the name “Pelé,” though he does not recall how or why he picked up the name.

Pelé was coached by his father and the hard work soon paid off, for when he was eleven Pelé played for his first soccer team, that of the town of Bauru, Brazil. He moved up in competition with outstanding play and soon was one of the best players on the team. At the age of fifteen his mentor (an advisor), former soccer star Waldemar de Brito, brought him to Sao Paulo to try out for the major league teams. Pelé was quickly rejected. De Brito then took Pelé to Santos where he earned a spot on the soccer team. There, Pelé earned nearly five thousand cruzeiros (about sixty dollars) per month to play soccer. He soon received broader exposure when he was loaned to the Vasco da Gama team in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

International play

In 1958 Pelé went to Stockholm, Sweden, to compete in the World Cup championship, the soccer championship that brings together all of the soccer-playing nations for one tournament. His play there helped his country win its first title as Pelé scored two goals in a dramatic 4-2 win over Sweden. He returned to Santos, and his team went on to win six Brazilian titles. In 1962 he again played on the Brazilian team that won the World Cup, but an injury forced him to sit out the contest.

Soccer is a low scoring game, but on November 19, 1969, before a crowd of one hundred thousand in Rio de Janeiro, Pelé scored his one thousandth goal. He led the Sao Paulo League in scoring for ten straight seasons. He was not only a high scorer, but a master of ball handling as well. It seemed the ball was somehow attached to his feet as he moved down the field.

In 1970 Pelé again played for Brazil's World Cup team, and in Mexico City, Mexico, they beat Italy for the championship. It was Pelé's play, both in scoring and in setting up other goals, that won them the title. When he announced that he would retire from international competition after a game to be played July 18, 1971, plans were made to televise the event throughout the world. By the time he left the game he had scored a total of 1,086 goals.

In America

After Pelé retired, he continued to play until he was signed to play for the New York Cosmos of the North American Soccer League for a reported three-year, \$7 million contract. A year later New York was at the top of their division, and in 1977 the Cosmos won the league championship. Pelé retired for good after that victory, but continued to be active in sports circles, becoming a commentator and promoter of soccer in the United States. When the World Cup was played in Detroit, Michigan, in 1994, Pelé was there, capturing the hearts of millions of fans around the world. Later that spring, he married his second wife, Assiria Seixas Lemos. In May of 1997, he was elected Minister of Sports in his home country of Brazil.

On December 11, 2001, the Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) named Pelé, along with Argentina's Diego Maradona, as the men's players of the century.

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WILLIAM PENN

Born: October 14, 1644

London, England

Died: July 30, 1718

Berkshire, England

English statesman and philosopher



William Penn founded Pennsylvania and played a leading role in the history of New Jersey and Delaware.

Colonial childhood

William Penn was born in London, England, on October 14, 1644. He was the first of three children of Admiral William Penn and Margaret Jasper. Admiral Penn served in the parliamentary navy during the Puritan Revolution (1647), when the royal forces of King Charles I (1600–1649) fought with those in England's parliament. Although rewarded by English statesman Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658) and given land in Ireland, he soon fell out of favor and took



William Penn.

part in the restoration of Charles II (1630–1685) as the king of Great Britain. A close friend of the Duke of York, Admiral Penn was knighted by Charles II. With so influential a father, there seemed little doubt that William's future had promise.

Nothing better demonstrates how young Penn represented his period than his early religious enthusiasm. At the age of thirteen he was deeply moved by Quaker Thomas Loe. (Quakers are a religious following who were persecuted [harassed] in the seventeenth century for their beliefs and forced to find new homes in Europe and America.) Afterward, at Oxford University in England, he came under the

influence of Puritans (English Protestants). When he refused Anglican (Church of England) practices, he was expelled (kicked out) in 1662. Afterwards, at his father's request, Penn attended the Inns of Court, gaining knowledge of the law. A portrait of this time shows him dressed in armor, with handsome, strong features, and the air of confidence of a young member of the ruling class.

Quaker advocate

Appearances, in Penn's case, were misleading. While supervising his father's Irish estates, Penn was drawn into the Quaker world. His conversion to Quakerism was inspired by the simple piety (religious devotion) of their religion and the need to provide relief for victims of persecution. At the age of twenty-two, against his father's wishes, Penn became a Quaker advocate, or supporter. His marriage in 1672 to Gulielma Maria Springett, of a well-known Quaker family, completed his religious commitment.

Penn's background and political connections were important resources for the persecuted Quakers. A major theme of his many writings was the unfairness of persecution. One remarkable achievement during this period was Penn's handling of the "Bushell Case." Penn managed to convince a jury not to imprison a Quaker only for his faith. When the judge demanded that the jury change its verdict (decision), Penn maintained successfully that a jury must not be influenced by the bench. This landmark case established the freedom of English juries.

Colonial proprietor

Religious persecution and colonization (settling new lands) went hand in hand as the

Quakers looked to America for a new home. Various problems with the Quaker interests in New Jersey led to Penn's heightened involvement. Penn contributed to the "Concessions and Agreements" (1677) offered to settlers, although he was not its principal author. This document gave the settlers virtual control over the colony through an elected assembly, or group of leaders. It also offered a guarantee of personal liberties (freedoms), especially religious toleration and trial by jury, which the Quakers were unable to receive in England.

The problems with New Jersey formed an introduction to the founding of Pennsylvania. Of major importance, however, was Penn's Quaker faith and devotion to religious and political freedom. This laid the foundation for his ideas that Pennsylvania would be a "Holy Experiment." In addition, Penn thought the colony could become a profitable enterprise (business) to be inherited by his family.

Founding Pennsylvania

Penn and his people were given control over the land and thorough powers of government. The grant, or document, reflected the period in which it was written: in keeping with new imperial regulations (British rule), Penn was made personally responsible for the enforcement of the Navigation Acts, a series of laws intended to increase English shipping. He also had to keep an agent in London and was required to send laws to England for royal approval.

In several ways Pennsylvania was the most successful English colony. Penn's first treaties (peace agreements) with the Indians, signed in 1683 and 1684, were based on an acceptance of Indian equality and resulted in an era of peace. Penn also wrote promotional

papers for Pennsylvania and arranged circulation of these materials overseas. The response was one of the largest and most varied migrations in the history of colonization. Moreover, Pennsylvania's economic beginnings were unusually successful. A fertile country (able to produce crops), the commercial advantages of Philadelphia, and substantial investments by Quaker businesspeople produced rapid economic growth.

Despite this success Pennsylvania was not without problems. Because of oversights in Penn's charter, an area along the southern border, including Philadelphia, was claimed by Lord Baltimore. This problem was only partly fixed when Penn secured control over what later became Delaware from the Duke of York. Just as troublesome were political controversies within the colony. Although Penn believed that the people should be offered self-government and that the rights of every citizen should be guaranteed, he did not think the colonists should have full power. In order to provide a balance in government, and partly to protect his own rights, he sought a key role in running the colony. What Penn envisioned in his famous "Frame of Government" (1682) was a system in which he would offer leadership, and the elected assembly would follow his pattern.

Almost from the start there were challenges to Penn's ideas. Controversies developed among the branches of government, with the representatives trying to restrict the authority of Penn and the council. Disputes centered on taxation, land policy, Penn's appointments, and defense. Other difficulties included Penn's identification with King James II (1633–1701), which brought him imprisonment from 1692 to 1694. No less

troublesome was his debt. Penn's financial responsibility in the founding of Pennsylvania led to his imprisonment for debt, a humiliating blow.

Final years

After England's Glorious Revolution, when James II was replaced by William III (1650–1702) and Mary II (1662–1694) as England's rulers in 1689, Penn and his family went to live in Pennsylvania. Arriving in 1699, he reestablished friendly contacts with the Indians and worked hard to heal a religious schism (separation) among the Quakers. He also fought piracy (robbing at sea) and tried to secure financial backing for colonial self-defense, demanded by the Crown but resisted by the Quakers.

Penn's major achievement was the new charter of 1701. Under its terms the council was eliminated, and Pennsylvania became the only colony governed by a single legislature of elected representatives. This system, which lasted until 1776, permitted the Delaware settlers to have their own governing body. Penn returned to England late in 1701 to fight a proposal in Parliament which would have voided all proprietary grants. He never saw Pennsylvania again.

Penn's last years were filled with disappointment. After the death of his first wife in 1694, Penn married Hannah Callowhill in 1696. Hampered by debts, colonial disaffection, and the general poor relationship with the King's ministers toward private colonies, Penn almost completed the sale of Pennsylvania to the Crown in 1712 before he suffered his first disabling stroke, a destruction of brain tissue which often leads to paralysis. He died at Ruscombe, Berkshire, on July 30, 1718.

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PERICLES

Born: c. 495 B.C.E.

Athens, Greece

Died: 429 B.C.E.

Athens, Greece

Greek statesman

Pericles was the leading statesman of Athens and brought it to the height of its political power and artistic achievement. The years from 446 to 429 B.C.E. have been called the Periclean Age.

Early life and family

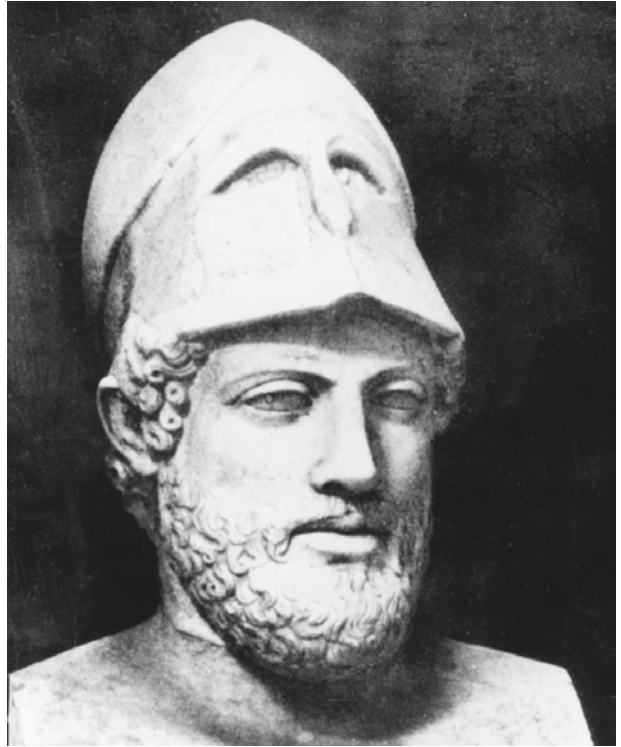
Pericles was the son of Xanthippus, a statesman and general of an upper class family (probably the Bouzygae), and Agariste, a niece of the famous statesman Cleisthenes, the leader of a powerful clan, the Alcmeonidae. Pericles inherited great wealth; as a young man, he put up the money for the costly production of Aeschylus's play *The Per-*

sae in 472 B.C.E. Pericles received the best education available, studying music under Damon and mathematics under Zeno of Elea. His greatest influence was a scholar named Anaxagoras, who taught him how to make speeches and was a model of the calm style that Pericles would use in politics. In his pursuit of a public career, Pericles chose to speak out in favor of a more advanced democracy.

Champion of democracy

Pericles became prominent in the Assembly, where he called for constitutional reform. He worked closely with Ephialtes, an older and more established leader of democratic views. They were both elected generals sometime before 462. In 462–461 they decided to attack Cimon, a leading conservative (one who believes in maintaining things as they are) and the most powerful of the generals in office, by accusing him of bribery. However, he was cleared of the charges. Later, Sparta's appeals to Athens for help against an uprising there were granted on the advice of Cimon and against the advice of Ephialtes. When the Athenian army under Cimon's command arrived to help, Spartan leaders changed their minds and dismissed them. This insulting treatment enraged the people of Athens and disgraced Cimon.

While Cimon and the army were off to help Sparta in 462, Ephialtes and Pericles carried out their extreme democratic reforms, stripping the Areopagus Council of all constitutional powers and making the authority of the Assembly and the Heliaea (people's courts) absolute. Athens also made alliances with Sparta's enemies, Argos and Thessaly. At this time Ephialtes was assassinated, and Pericles became the undisputed leader of Athens.



Pericles.

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Legislator of domestic affairs

Pericles passed further legislation to weaken the Areopagus Council, introduced pay for political services, and restricted Athenian citizenship to children whose mothers and fathers were both Athenian. He also changed the Delian League, a collection of city-states bound together with Athens to stand against Persia, into an Athenian Empire. He collected annual payments from the member states to maintain a fleet of ships, and the money left over was used to improve Athens. Pericles oversaw the construction of many famous and beautiful temples and public buildings in Athens, including the Parthenon.

Pericles eventually proposed the recall of Cimon, which resulted in victories over Persia and a truce with Sparta. Pericles's own operations as a military commander in western waters in 455 and 454 were successful. However, it is not known how much Pericles was involved with later wars fought on two fronts—against Sparta in Greece (resulting in neither side winning) and against Persia in Egypt (which resulted in a heavy defeat).

Problems arise

Pericles's actions on behalf of the Athenian Empire led to increased problems with Sparta. In 447–446 the storm broke within the empire, with many regions rising up: Athens's power in Boeotia collapsed, Euboea revolted, Megara broke free from Athenian occupation, and Sparta invaded Attica. Leading an Athenian army, Pericles crossed to Euboea and then rushed back to face the enemy in Attica. To everyone's amazement the Spartan king withdrew his army. Pericles was said by some to have bribed the king. Pericles hurried back to Euboea and stamped out the revolt. A peace treaty was achieved, but Athens had lost most of its gains.

Pericles's foreign policy was to stop any revolt in the Athenian Empire and to resist Sparta. He paraded the naval power of Athens with an expedition in the Black Sea (c. 437), and he advised Athens to make alliances with Corcyra (Corfu), a leading naval power in the west, in 433. A series of incidents followed that resulted in war with Sparta and its allies in 431. Pericles's strategy was an offensive by sea, avoidance of battle on land, and control of the empire. Inside the walls of Athens, an outbreak of disease struck down a third of Athens's armed forces, two

sons of Pericles among them. The people of Athens began to turn against him for the first time. He was fined but reelected general in 429 before dying later that year. The society he led followed his ideas—a love of Athens, a belief in freedom for Athenians, and a faith in the ability of man.

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EVA PERÓN

Born: May 7, 1919

Los Toldos, Argentina

Died: July 26, 1952

Buenos Aires, Argentina

Argentine political leader

Eva Perón was the second wife and political partner of President Juan Perón (1895–1974) of Argentina. An important political figure in her own right, she was known for her campaign for female suffrage (the right to vote), her support of organized labor groups, and her organization of a vast social welfare program that benefited and gained the support of the lower classes.

Early years

The youngest of five children of Juan Duarte and Juana Ibarguren, María Eva Duarte was born on May 7, 1919, in the little village of Los Toldos in Buenos Aires province, Argentina. Following the death of her father, the family moved to the larger nearby town of Junín, where her mother ran a boarding house. At the age of sixteen, Evita, as she was often called, left high school after two years and went to Buenos Aires with the dream of becoming an actress. Lacking any training in the theater, she obtained a few small parts in motion pictures and on the radio. She was finally employed on a regular basis with one of the largest radio stations in Buenos Aires making 150 pesos every month. Her pay had increased to five thousand pesos every month by 1943 and jumped to thirty-five thousand pesos per month in 1944.

Partners with Perón

In 1943 Eva met Colonel Juan Perón, who had assumed the post of secretary of labor and social welfare in the military government that had recently come to power. Eva developed a close relationship with the widowed Perón, who was beginning to organize the Argentine workers in support of his own bid for the presidency. Becoming Perón's loyal political confidante (one with whom secrets are trusted) and partner, she helped him increase his support among the masses. In October 1945, after Perón was arrested and put in prison by a group of military men who did not support him, she helped to organize a mass demonstration that led to his release. A few days later, on October 21, 1945, Eva and Juan Perón were married.



Eva Perón.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Now politically stronger than ever, Perón became the government candidate in the February 1946 presidential election. Señora de Perón participated actively in the campaign, something no Argentine woman had ever done. She directed her appeal to the less privileged groups of Argentine society, whom she labeled “los descamisados” (the shirtless ones).

Influence in political affairs

Following Perón's election, Eva began to play an increasingly important role in the political affairs of the nation. During the early months of the Perón administration she

launched an active campaign for national women's suffrage, which had been one of Perón's campaign promises. Due largely to her efforts, suffrage for women became law in 1947, and in 1951 women voted for the first time in a national election.

Eva also assumed the task of gathering the support of the working classes and controlling organized labor groups. Taking over a suite of offices in the Secretariate of Labor, Perón's former center of power, she used her influence to hire and fire ministers and top officials of the General Confederation of Labor, the chief labor organization in Argentina. Although not given the official title, she acted as the secretary of labor, supporting workers' demands for higher wages and backing a number of social welfare measures.

Helped the lower classes

Because Eva came from a lower-class background, she identified with the members of the working classes and was strongly committed to improving their lives. She devoted several hours every day to meeting with poor people and visiting hospitals, orphanages, and factories. She also supervised the newly created Ministry of Health, which built many new hospitals and established a successful program to fight different diseases.

A large part of Eva's work with the poor was carried out by the María Eva Duarte de Perón Welfare Foundation, established in June 1947. Its funds came from contributions, often obtained with force, from trade unions, businesses, and industrial firms. The foundation grew into an enormous semiofficial welfare agency that distributed food, clothing, medicine, and money to needy peo-

ple throughout Argentina and on occasion to those suffering from disasters in other Latin American countries.

Enjoying great popularity among the descamisados, Eva Perón helped greatly in maintaining the loyalty of the masses to the Perón administration. On the other hand, her program of social welfare and her campaign for female suffrage led to considerable opposition among the *gente bien* (upper class), to whom Eva was unacceptable because of her humble background and earlier activities. Eva was driven by the desire to master those members of the government that had rejected her, and she could be cruel and spiteful with her enemies.

Death and place in history

In June 1951 it was announced that Eva would be the vice presidential candidate on the reelection ticket with Perón in the upcoming national election. Eva's candidacy was strongly supported by the General Confederation of Labor, but opposition within the military and her own failing health caused her to decline the nomination. Already suffering from cancer, Eva died on July 26, 1952, at the age of thirty-two. After Eva's death, which produced a huge display of public grief, Perón's political fortunes began to decline. He was finally removed from office by a military takeover in September 1955.

Eva Perón's friends and enemies agreed that she was a woman of great personal charm. Her supporters have elevated her to popular sainthood as the champion of the lower classes. The favorable portrayal of her in the play *Evita*, first staged in 1978, and in the 1997 film of the same name, brought Eva to

the forefront of the American public. By a large part of the officer corps of the military, however, she is greatly despised. There is still considerable difference of opinion regarding her true role in the Perón administration and her true place in Argentine history.

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JEAN PIAGET

Born: August 9, 1896

Neuchâtel, Switzerland

Died: September 17, 1980

Geneva, Switzerland

Swiss psychologist

The Swiss psychologist and educator Jean Piaget is famous for his learning theories based on different stages in the development of children's intelligence.

Young naturalist

Jean Piaget was born on August 9, 1896, in Neuchâtel, Switzerland, the son of a histo-

rian. Much of Piaget's childhood was influenced by what he saw in his father, a man intensely dedicated to his studies and work. Because of this, at an early age Piaget began passing up recreation for studying, particularly the study of the natural sciences. When he was eleven, his notes on a rare part-albino (having extremely pale or light skin) sparrow were published, the first of hundreds of articles and over fifty books. Several times, when submitting his works to be published in various magazines, Piaget was forced to keep his young age a secret. Many editors felt that a young author had very little credibility.

Piaget's help in classifying Neuchâtel's natural-history museum collection inspired his study of mollusks (shellfish). One article, written when he was fifteen, led to a job offer at a natural history museum in Geneva, Switzerland; he declined in order to continue his education. At Neuchâtel University he finished natural science studies in 1916 and earned a doctoral degree for research on mollusks in 1918.

Early career

Piaget's godfather introduced him to philosophy (the search for knowledge). Biology (the study of living organisms) was thus merged with epistemology (the study of knowledge), both basic to his later learning theories. Work in two psychological laboratories in Zurich, Switzerland, introduced him to psychoanalysis (the study of mental processes). In Paris at the Sorbonne he studied abnormal psychology (the study of mental illness), logic, and epistemology, and in 1920 with Théodore Simon in the Binet Laboratory he developed standardized reasoning tests (universal tests). Piaget thought that



Jean Piaget.

Courtesy of the Archives of the History of America.

these quantitative (expressed as an amount) tests were too strict and saw that children's incorrect answers better revealed their qualitative thinking (quality of thinking) at various stages of development. This led to the question he would spend the rest of his life studying: How do children learn?

After 1921 Piaget was director of research, assistant director, and then codirector at the Jean Jacques Rousseau Institute, later part of Geneva University, where he was the professor of history in scientific thought (1929–1939). He also taught at universities in Paris, Lausanne, and Neuchâtel. He was chairman of the International Bureau of Edu-

cation and was a Swiss delegate to United Nations Economic and Scientific Committee (UNESCO). In 1955 he founded the Center for Genetic Epistemology in Geneva with funds from the Rockefeller Foundation, and in 1956 he founded and became director of the Institute for Educational Science in Geneva.

The study of children

Piaget found four stages of mental growth while studying children, particularly his own: a sensory-motor stage, from birth to age two, when mental structures concentrate on concrete (or real) objects; a pre-operational stage, from age two to seven, when children learn symbols in language, fantasy, play, and dreams; a concrete operational stage, from age seven to eleven, when children master classification, relationships, numbers, and ways of reasoning (arguing to a conclusion) about them; finally, a formal operational stage, from age eleven, when they begin to master independent thought and other people's thinking.

Piaget believed that children's understanding through at least the first three stages differ from those of adults and are based on actively exploring the environment (surroundings) rather than on language understanding. During these stages children learn naturally without punishment or reward. Piaget saw nature (heredity, or characteristics passed down from parents) and nurture (environment) as related and equally as important, with neither being the final answer. He found children's ideas about nature neither inherited (passed down from parents) nor learned but constructed from their mental structures and experiences. Men-

tal growth takes place by integration, or learning higher ideas by absorbing lower-level ideas, and by substitution, or replacing early explanations of an occurrence or idea with a more reasonable explanation. Children learn in stages in an upward spiral of understanding, with the same problems attacked and solved more completely at each higher level.

Harvard psychologist Jerome Bruner (1915–) and others introduced Piaget's ideas to the United States around 1956, after his books were translated into English. The goal of American education in the late 1950s, to teach children how to think, called for further interest in Piaget's ideas. His defined stages of when children's concepts change and mature came from experiments with children. These ideas are currently favored over the later developed stimulus-response theory (to excite in order to get response) of behaviorist (doctors who focus on the behaviors of their subjects) psychologists, who have studied animal learning.

Piaget's theories developed over years. Further explanations and experiments were performed, but these refinements did not alter his basic beliefs or theories.

Awards and legacy

Piaget received honorary degrees from Oxford and Harvard universities and made many impressive guest appearances at conferences concerning childhood development and learning. He remained a quiet figure, though, preferring to avoid the spotlight. This kind of lifestyle allowed him to further develop his theories.

Piaget kept himself to a strict personal schedule that filled his entire day. He awoke

every morning at four and wrote at least four publishable pages before teaching classes or attending meetings. After lunch he would take walks and ponder on his interests. "I always like to think on a problem before reading about it," he said. He read extensively in the evening before going to bed. Every summer he vacationed in the Alpine Mountains of Europe and wrote many works.

Piaget died on September 17, 1980 in Geneva, Switzerland, and was remembered by the *New York Times* as the man whose theories were "as liberating [freeing] and revolutionary as Sigmund Freud's [1856–1939] earlier insights into the stages of human emotional life. Many have hailed him as one of the country's most creative scientific thinkers."

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PABLO PICASSO

Born: October 25, 1881

Malaga, Spain

Died: April 8, 1973

Mougins, France

Spanish painter, sculptor, and graphic artist

The Spanish painter, sculptor, and graphic artist Pablo Picasso was one of the most productive and revolutionary artists in the history of Western painting. As the central figure in developing cubism (an artistic style where recognizable objects are fragmented to show all sides of an object at the same time), he established the basis for abstract art (art having little or no pictorial representation).

Early years

Pablo Ruiz Picasso was born on October 25, 1881, in Malaga, Spain. He was the eldest and only son with two younger sisters, Lola and Concepción. His father, José Ruiz Blasco, was a professor in the School of Arts and Crafts. Pablo's mother was Maria Ruiz Picasso (the artist used her surname from about 1901 on). It is rumored that Picasso learned to draw before he could speak. As a child, his father frequently took him to bullfights, and one of his earlier paintings was a scene from a bullfight.

In 1891 the family moved to La Coruña, where, at the age of fourteen, Picasso began studying at the School of Fine Art. Under the academic instruction of his father, he developed his artistic talent at an extraordinary rate.

When the family moved to Barcelona, Spain, in 1896, Picasso easily gained entrance to the School of Fine Arts. A year later he was admitted as an advanced student at the Royal Academy of San Fernando in Madrid, Spain. He demonstrated his remarkable ability by completing in one day an entrance examination for which an entire month was permitted.

Picasso soon found the atmosphere at the academy stifling, and he returned to Barcelona, where he began to study historical

and contemporary art on his own. At that time Barcelona was the most vital cultural center in Spain, and Picasso quickly joined the group of poets, painters, and writers who gathered at the famous café Els Quatre Gats (The Four Cats). Between 1900 and 1903 Picasso stayed alternately in Paris, France, and Barcelona. He had his first one-man exhibition in Paris in 1901.

Paris at the turn of the twentieth century

At the turn of the twentieth century Paris was the center of the international art world. In painting it was the birthplace of the impressionists—painters who depicted the appearance of objects by means of dabs or strokes of unmixed colors in order to create the look of actual reflected light. While their works retained certain links with the visible world, they exhibited a decided tendency toward flatness and abstraction.

Picasso set up a permanent studio in Paris in 1904. His studio soon became a gathering place for the city's most modern artists, writers, and patrons.

Picasso's early work reveals a creative pattern which continued throughout his long career. Between 1900 and 1906 he worked through nearly every major style of contemporary (modern) painting. In doing so, his own work changed with extraordinary quickness.

Blue and pink periods

The years between 1901 and 1904 were known as Picasso's Blue Period. Nearly all of his works were executed in somber shades of blue and contained lean, melancholy, and introspective (concentrating on their own thoughts) figures. Two outstanding examples

of this period are the *Old Guitarist* (1903) and *Life* (1903).

In the second half of 1904 Picasso's style took a new direction. In these paintings the color became more natural, delicate, and tender in its range, with reddish and pink tones dominating the works. Thus this period was called his Pink Period. The most celebrated example of this phase is the *Family of Saltimbanques* (1905). Picasso's work between 1900 and 1905 was generally flat, emphasizing the two-dimensional character of the painting surface. Late in 1905, however, he became increasingly interested in pictorial volume. This interest seems to have been influenced by the late paintings of Paul Cézanne (1839–1906).

The face in *Portrait of Gertrude Stein* (1906) reveals still another new interest: its mask-like abstraction was inspired by Iberian sculpture, an exhibition of which Picasso had seen at the Louvre, in Paris, in the spring of 1906. This influence reached its fullest expression a year later in one of the most revolutionary pictures of Picasso's entire career, *Les Femmes d'Alger* (1907).

Picasso and cubism

Les Femmes d'Alger is generally regarded as the first cubist painting. The faces of the figures are seen from both front and profile positions at the same time. Between 1907 and 1911 Picasso continued to break apart the visible world into increasingly small facets of monochromatic (using one color) planes of space. In doing so, his works became more and more abstract. Representation gradually vanished from his painting, until it became an end in itself—for the first time in the history of Western art.



Pablo Picasso.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

The growth of this process is evident in all of Picasso's work between 1907 and 1911. Some of the most outstanding pictorial examples of the development are *Fruit Dish* (1909), *Portrait of Ambroise Vollard* (1910), and *Ma Jolie*, also known as *Woman with a Guitar* (1911–12).

Collages and further development

About 1911 Picasso and Georges Braque (1882–1963) began to introduce letters and scraps of newspapers into their cubist paintings, thus creating an entirely new medium, the cubist collage. Picasso's first, and proba-

bly his most celebrated, collage is *Still Life with Chair Caning* (1911–1912).

After Picasso experimented with the new medium of collage, he returned more intensively to painting. In his *Three Musicians* (1921), the planes became broader, more simplified, and more colorful. In its richness of feeling and balance of formal elements, the *Three Musicians* represents a classical expression of cubism.

Additional achievements

Picasso also created sculpture and prints throughout his long career, and made numerous important contributions to both media. He periodically worked in ceramics, and designed sets, curtains, and interiors for the theater.

In painting, even the development of cubism fails to define Picasso's genius. About 1915, and again in the early 1920s, he turned away from abstraction and produced drawings and paintings in a realistic and serenely beautiful classical style. One of the most famous of these works is the *Woman in White* (1923). Painted just two years after the *Three Musicians*, the quiet and unobtrusive (not calling attention to itself) elegance of this masterpiece testifies to the ease with which Picasso could express himself pictorially.

Guernica

One of Picasso's most celebrated paintings of the 1930s is *Guernica* (1937). This work had been commissioned for the Spanish Government Building at the Paris World's Fair. It depicts the destruction by bombing of the town of Guernica during the Spanish Civil War (1936–39; the military revolt

against the Spanish government). The artist's deep feelings about the work, and about the massacre (a mass killing) which inspired it, are reflected in the fact that he completed the work, that is more than 25 feet wide and 11 feet high, within six or seven weeks.

Guernica is an extraordinary monument within the history of modern art. Executed entirely in black, white, and gray, it projects an image of pain, suffering, and brutality that has few parallels. Picasso applied the pictorial language of cubism to a subject that springs directly from social and political awareness.

Picasso's politics

Picasso also declared publicly in 1947 that he was a Communist (someone who believes the national government should control all businesses and the distribution of goods). When he was asked why he was a Communist, he stated, "When I was a boy in Spain, I was very poor and aware of how poor people had to live. I learned that the Communists were for the poor people. That was enough to know. So I became for the Communists." But sometimes the Communist cause was not as keen on Picasso as Picasso was about being a Communist. A 1953 portrait he painted of Joseph Stalin (1879–1953) caused an uproar in the Communist Party's leadership. The Soviet government banished his works.

Although Picasso had been in exile from his native Spain since the 1939 victory of Generalissimo Francisco Franco (1892–1975), he gave eight hundred to nine hundred of his earliest works to the city and people of Barcelona. To display these works, the Palacio Aguilar was renamed the Picasso Museum and the works were moved inside. But because of

Franco's dislike for Picasso, Picasso's name never appeared on the museum.

Picasso was married twice, first to dancer Olga Khoklova and then to Jacqueline Roque. He had four children. He was planning an exhibit of over two hundred of his works at the Avignon Arts Festival in France when he died at his thirty-five-room hilltop villa of Notre Dame de Vie in Mougins, France, on April 8, 1973.

The discovery of cubism represents Picasso's most important achievement in the history of twentieth-century art. Throughout his life he exhibited a remarkable genius for sculpture, graphics, and ceramics, as well as painting. His is one of the most celebrated artists of the modern period.

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SYLVIA PLATH

Born: October 27, 1932
Boston, Massachusetts

Died: February 11, 1963

London, England

American poet and novelist

Best known for *The Bell Jar*, poet and novelist Sylvia Plath explored the themes of death, self, and nature in works that expressed her uncertain attitude toward the universe.

Early life

Sylvia Plath was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on October 27, 1932, to Otto and Aurelia Plath. Her father, a professor of biology (the study of plant and animal life) at Boston University and a well-respected authority on bees, died when she was eight years old. She was left with feelings of grief, guilt, and anger that would haunt her for life and led her to create most of her poetry. Plath gave the appearance of being a socially well-adjusted child. She was also an excellent student who dazzled her teachers in the Winthrop, Massachusetts, public school system and earned straight A's and praise for her writing abilities. She was just eight and a half when her first poem was published in the *Boston Herald*.

Plath lived in Winthrop with her mother and younger brother, Warren, until 1942. These early years gave her a powerful awareness of the beauty and terror of nature and a strong love and fear of the ocean. In 1942 her mother found a job as a teacher and purchased a house in Wellesley, Massachusetts, a respectable, middle-class, educational community that also influenced Plath's life and values. Her first story, "And Summer Will Not Come Again," was published in *Seventeen* magazine in August 1950. In September



Sylvia Plath.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

1950 Plath entered Smith College in Northampton, Massachusetts, on a scholarship (money given to a gifted student to attend college). There she once again excelled in her studies academically and socially. Referred to as “the golden girl” by teachers and peers, she planned her writing career in detail. She filled notebooks with stories and poems, shaping her words carefully and winning many awards.

Out in the world

In August 1952 Plath won a fiction contest held by *Mademoiselle*, earning her a position as guest editor at the magazine in June

1953. Her experiences in New York City, were depressing and later became the basis for her novel *The Bell Jar* (1963). Upon her return home Plath, tired of her image as the All-American girl, suffered a serious mental breakdown, tried to kill herself, and was given shock treatments. In February 1953 she had recovered enough to return to Smith College. She graduated and won a Fulbright scholarship to Cambridge University in England, where she met her future husband, the poet Ted Hughes (1930–1998). They were married in June 1956 in London, England.

After Plath earned her graduate degree, she returned to America to accept a teaching position at Smith for the 1957–1958 school year. She quit after a year to devote all her time to writing. For a while she attended a poetry course given by American poet Robert Lowell (1917–1977), where she met American poet Anne Sexton (1928–1974). Sexton’s and Lowell’s influences were important to her development as a poet. Both urged her to write about very private subjects. Plath and her husband were invited as writers-in-residence to Yaddo, in Saratoga Springs, New York, where they lived and worked for two months. It was here that Plath completed many of the poems collected in *The Colossus* (1960), her first volume of poems. Her first child, Frieda, was born in 1960. Another child, Nicholas, was born two years later.

The Colossus was praised by critics for its “fine craft” and “brooding [anxious] sense of danger and lurking horror” at man’s place in the universe. But it was criticized for its absence of a personal voice. Not until “Three Women: A Monologue for Three Voices” (1962)—a radio play that was considered a key work by some critics—would Plath begin

to free her style and write more natural, less narrative (telling a story) poetry. “Three Women” is like much of Plath’s later poetry in that its structure is dramatic and expresses the highly personal themes that mark her work.

Expressing inner demons

As Plath’s poetry developed, it became more autobiographical (about her own life) and private. Almost all the poems in *Ariel* (1965), considered her finest work and written during the last few months of her life, are personal accounts of her anger, insecurity, fear, and tremendous sense of loneliness and death. She had found the voice that she had tried to express for so long. Violent and vivid in its description of suicide, death, and brutality, *Ariel* shocked critics, especially several poems that compare her father to a member of the Nazis (members of the ruling party in Germany, 1933–45, who killed six million Jewish people during World War II [1939–45], which was a war fought between Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union and the United States against Germany, Italy, and Japan).

Plath could not escape the tragedy that invaded and took over her personal life. By February 1963 her marriage had ended. She was ill and living on the edge of another breakdown while caring for two small children in a small apartment in London, England, during the coldest winter in years. On February 11 she killed herself. The last thing she did was to leave her children two mugs of milk and a plate of buttered bread.

Later works

In later poetry published after her death in *Crossing The Water* (1971) and *Winter Trees* (1971), Plath voiced her long-hidden rage

over “years of doubleness, smiles, and compromise.” A more complete look into Plath’s tortured mind was possible following the publication in 2002 of *The Unabridged Journals of Sylvia Plath, 1950–1962*.

Although Sylvia Plath is often regarded by critics as the poet of death, her final poems, which deal with the self and how it goes about living in a destructive, materialistic (focused on the acquiring of material wealth) world, clearly express her need for faith in the healing powers of art.

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PLATO

Born: c. 427 B.C.E.

Athens, Greece

Died: c. 347 B.C.E.

Athens, Greece

Greek philosopher

The Greek philosopher Plato founded the Academy in Athens, one of the great philosophical schools of antiquity.



Plato.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

uity (ancient times). His thought had enormous impact on the development of Western (having to do with American and European thought) philosophy.

Early life

Plato was born in Athens, Greece, the son of Ariston and Perictione, both of Athenian noble backgrounds. He lived his whole life in Athens, although he traveled to Sicily and southern Italy on several occasions. One story says he traveled to Egypt. Little is known of his early years, but he was given the finest education Athens had to offer noble families, and he devoted his considerable tal-

ents to politics and the writing of tragedy (works that end with death and sadness) and other forms of poetry. His acquaintance with Socrates (c. 469–c. 399 B.C.E.) altered the course of his life. The power that Socrates's methods and arguments had over the minds of the youth of Athens gripped Plato as firmly as it did many others, and he became a close associate of Socrates.

The end of the Peloponnesian War (431–04 B.C.E.), which caused the destruction of Athens by the Spartans, left Plato in a terrible position. His uncle, Critias (c. 480–403 B.C.E.), was the leader of the Thirty Tyrants (a group of ruthless Athenian rulers) who were installed in power by the victorious Spartans. One means of holding onto power was to connect as many Athenians as possible with terrible acts committed during the war. Thus Socrates, as we learn in Plato's *Apology*, was ordered to arrest a man and bring him to Athens from Salamis for execution (to be put to death). When the great teacher refused, his life was threatened, and he was probably saved only by the overthrow of the Thirty Tyrants and the reestablishment of the democracy (a system of government in which government officials are elected by the people).

Death of Socrates

Plato welcomed the restoration of the democracy, but his mistrust was deepened some four years later when Socrates was tried on false charges and sentenced to death. Plato was present at the trial, as we learn in the *Apology*, but was not present when the hemlock (poison) was given to his master, although he describes the scene in clear and touching detail in the *Phaedo*. He then turned in disgust from Athenian politics and never

took an active part in government, although through friends he did try to influence the course of political life in the Sicilian city of Syracuse.

Plato and several of his friends withdrew from Athens for a short time after Socrates's death and remained with Euclides (c. 450–373 B.C.E.) in Megara. His productive years were highlighted by three voyages to Sicily, and his writings, all of which have survived.

The first trip, to southern Italy and Syracuse, took place in 388 and 387 B.C.E., when Plato met Dionysius I (c. 430–367 B.C.E.). Dionysius was then at the height of his power in Sicily for having freed the Greeks there from the threat of Carthaginian rule. Plato became better friends with the philosopher Dion (c. 408–353 B.C.E.), however, and Dionysius grew jealous and began to treat Plato harshly.

His dialogues

When Plato returned to Athens, he began to teach in the Gymnasium Academe and soon afterward acquired property nearby and founded his famous Academy, which survived until the early sixth century C.E. At the center of the Academy stood a shrine to the Muses (gods of the arts), and at least one modern scholar suggests that the Academy may have been a type of religious brotherhood.

Plato had begun to write the dialogues (writings in the form of conversation), which came to be the basis of his philosophical (having to do with the search for knowledge and truth) teachings, some years before the founding of the Academy. To this early period Plato wrote the *Laches* which deals with

courage, *Charmides* with common sense, *Euthyphro* with piety (religious dedication), *Lysis* with friendship, *Protagoras* with the teaching of virtues, or goodness, and many others. The *Apology* and *Crito* stand somewhat apart from the other works of this group in that they deal with historical events, Socrates's trial and the period between his conviction and execution.

Plato's own great contributions begin to appear in the second group of writings, which date from the period between his first and second voyages to Sicily. The *Meno* carries on the question of the teachability of virtue first dealt with in *Protagoras* and introduces the teaching of *anamnesis* (recollection), which plays an important role in Plato's view of the human's ability to learn the truth.

The Republic

Socrates is again the main character in the *Republic*, although this work is less a dialogue than a long discussion by Socrates of justice and what it means to the individual and the city-state (independent states). Just as there are three elements to the soul, the rational, the less rational, and the impulsive irrational, so there are three classes in the state, the rulers, the guardians, and the workers. The rulers are not a family of rulers but are made up of those who have emerged from the population as a whole as the most gifted intellectually. The guardians serve society by keeping order and by handling the practical matters of government, including fighting wars, while the workers perform the labor necessary to keep the whole running smoothly. Thus the most rational elements of the city-state guide it and see that all in it are given an education equal to their abilities.

Only when the three work in harmony, with intelligence clearly in control, does the individual or state achieve the happiness and fulfillment of which it is capable. The *Republic* ends with the great myth of Er, in which the wanderings of the soul through births and rebirths are retold. One may be freed from the cycle after a time through lives of greater and greater spiritual and intellectual purity.

Last years

Plato's third and final voyage to Syracuse was made some time before 357 B.C.E., and he tried for the second time to influence the young Dionysius II. Plato was unsuccessful and was held in semicaptivity before being released. Plato's *Seventh Letter*, the only one in the collection of thirteen considered accurate, perhaps even from the hand of Plato himself, recounts his role in the events surrounding the death of Dion, who in 357 B.C.E. entered Syracuse and overthrew Dionysius. It is of more interest, however, for Plato's statement that the deepest truths may not be communicated.

Plato died in 347 B.C.E. the founder of an important philosophical school, which existed for almost one thousand years, and the most brilliant of Socrates's many pupils and followers. His system attracted many followers in the centuries after his death and resurfaced as Neoplatonism, the great rival of early Christianity.

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POCAHONTAS

Born: c. 1595

Virginia

Died: 1617

Gravesend, Kent, England

Native American princess

Pocahontas was the daughter of a Native American chief in Virginia at the time when the British came to settle in the area. Her marriage to an English settler brought eight years of peace between the Indians and the British.

The “playful one”

Pocahontas's real name was Matoaka. As a child, she was also called Pocahontas, meaning “playful one,” and the name stuck. Her father was Powhatan (c. 1550–1618), the chief of a group of tribes that bore his name and spoke the Native American Algonquian language.

In 1607 English colonists founded Jamestown. They had been sent by the Virginia Company, a company in London that had the English king's permission to set up a colony in the area for trade with England. As a young girl, Pocahontas often played at the Jamestown fort. She became friends with some of the boys there and charmed the settlers by turning cartwheels with the boys in the Jamestown marketplace.

Relations between the Native Americans and the settlers were not always smooth, but Pocahontas's friendship with the settlers may have helped keep peace. Captain John Smith (c. 1580–1631), who was the leader of the Jamestown colony until 1609, reported that

Pocahantas saved his life when he was captured by Powhatan's warriors in 1608. According to Smith, whose story is not believed by all historians, Pocahantas's actions kept Smith from being killed by Powhatan's men. Saving John Smith also saved the Jamestown colony.

Life with the English

Despite the incident with Smith, tensions between the Native Americans and the colonists in Virginia remained. In 1613, while Pocahontas was visiting the village of the Potomac Indians, she was taken prisoner by Samuel Argall, captain of a ship named *Treasurer*. Argall wanted to use Pocahantas as a hostage to exchange for Englishmen who were held by Powhatan's group, and for tools and supplies that the Native Americans had stolen. She was taken to Jamestown, where she was treated with respect by the governor, Sir Thomas Dale (–1619). Dale was touched by her intelligence and by her proper behavior. After being instructed in the Christian religion, she was baptized (admitted to Christianity and given a Christian name) with the name Rebecca.

John Rolfe (1585–1622), a gentleman at Jamestown, fell in love with Pocahantas and asked Dale for permission to marry her. Dale readily agreed in order to win the friendship of the Indians, even though Pocahontas may have already been married to a chief named Kocoum. Chief Powhatan also consented, and the marriage took place in June 1614 in the church at Jamestown in an Anglican service, following the Anglican branch of Christianity that had been developed in England. Both Native Americans and Englishmen apparently considered the union a bond



Pocahontas.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

between them. Pocahantas's marriage to Rolfe brought eight years of peaceful relations in Virginia.

A princess visits England

In 1616 the Virginia Company invited Pocahontas to visit England, thinking that her visit would aid the company in securing investments from the British. Rolfe, Pocahontas, her brother-in-law Tomocomo, and several Indian girls sailed to England. There Pocahontas was a great success. She was treated as a princess, entertained by the Anglican bishop of London, and introduced to England's King James I and Queen Anne.

Early in 1617 Pocahontas and her party prepared to return to Virginia. However, she became ill while in the village at Gravesend. Pocahontas had developed a case of smallpox, an infectious and dangerous disease caused by a virus and leading to high fever. Pocahontas died from the disease and was buried in Gravesend Church. Her only child, Thomas Rolfe, was educated in England, and later returned to Virginia.

Lasting contribution

Pocahontas was one of the first women to play an important role in what became the United States. Her friendship with the English settlers helped ensure the success of Jamestown, which became the first permanent English settlement in America.

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EDGAR ALLAN POE

Born: January 19, 1809
Boston, Massachusetts

Died: October 7, 1849

Baltimore, Maryland

American poet and writer

One of America's major writers, Edgar Allan Poe was far ahead of his time in his vision of a special area of human experience—the “inner world” of dreams and the imagination. He wrote fiction, poetry, and criticism and also worked as a magazine editor.

Orphaned at three

Edgar Allan Poe was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on January 19, 1809, the son of David Poe Jr. and Elizabeth Arnold Poe, both professional actors. By the time he was three, Edgar, his older brother, and his younger sister were orphans; their father deserted the family, and then their mother died. The children were each sent to different families to live. Edgar went to the Richmond, Virginia, home of John and Frances Allan, whose name Poe was to take later as his own middle name. The Allans were wealthy, and though they never adopted Poe, they treated him like a son, made sure he was educated in private academies, and took him to England for a five-year stay. Mrs. Allan, at least, showed considerable affection toward him.

As Edgar entered his teenage years, however, bad feelings developed between him and John Allan. Allan disapproved of Edgar's ambition to become a writer, thought he was ungrateful, and seems to have decided to cut Poe out of his will. When, in 1826, Poe entered the newly opened University of Virginia, he had so little money that he turned to gambling in an attempt to make money. In eight months he lost two thousand dollars.

Allan's refusal to help him led to a final break between the two, and in March 1827 Poe went out on his own.

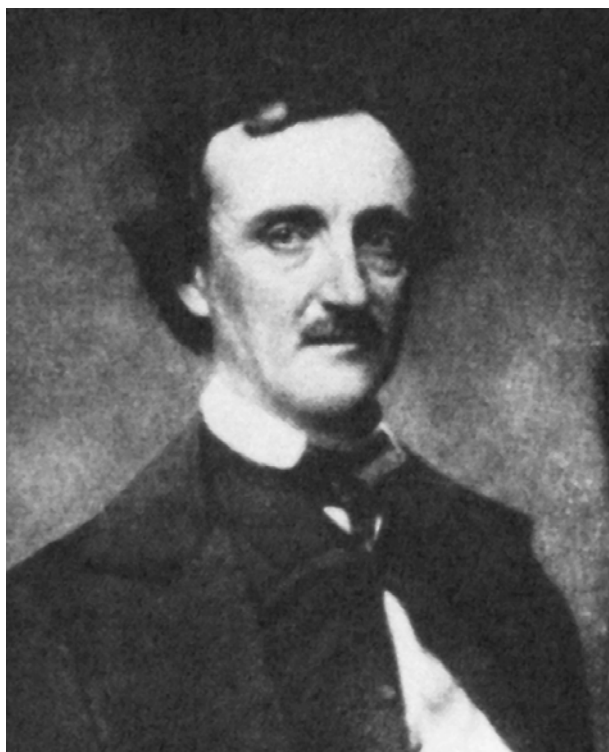
Enlists in the army

Poe then signed up for a five-year term in the U.S. Army. In 1827 his *Tamerlane and Other Poems* was published at his own expense, but the book failed to attract notice. By January 1829, serving under the name of Edgar A. Perry, Poe rose to the rank of sergeant major. He did not want to serve out the full five years, however, and he arranged to be discharged from the army on the condition that he would seek an appointment at West Point Academy. He thought such a move might please John Allan. That same year *Al Araaf, Tamerlane and Minor Poems* was published in Baltimore, Maryland, and it received a highly favorable notice from the novelist and critic John Neal.

Poe visited Allan in Richmond, but he left in May 1830 after he and Allan had another violent quarrel. The West Point appointment came through the next month, but, since Poe no longer had any use for it, he did not last long. Lacking Allan's permission to resign, Poe sought and received a dismissal for "gross neglect of duty" and "disobedience of orders." Poe realized that he would never receive financial help from Allan.

Marriage and editing jobs

Poe lived in Baltimore for a while with his aunt Maria Clemm and her seven-year-old daughter, Virginia. In 1831 he published *Poems by Edgar Allan Poe* and began to place short stories in magazines. In 1833 he received a prize for "Ms. Found in a Bottle," and his friend John Pendleton Kennedy, a



Edgar Allan Poe.

lawyer and writer, got him a job on the *Southern Literary Messenger*. In 1836 Poe married his cousin Virginia—now thirteen years old—and moved to Richmond with her and her mother. Although excessive drinking caused him to lose his job in 1837, he had written eighty-three reviews, six poems, four essays, and three short stories for the journal. He had also greatly increased its sales. Losing this job was extremely distressing to him, and his state of mind from then on, as one biographer put it, "was never very far from panic."

The panic increased after 1837. Poe moved with Virginia and her mother to New

York City, where he managed to publish *The Narrative of Arthur Gordon Pym* (1838), his only long work of fiction. The family then moved to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, where Poe served as coeditor of *Burton's Gentleman's Magazine*. In two years he boosted its circulation from five thousand to twenty thousand and contributed some of his best fiction to its pages, including "The Fall of the House of Usher." In 1840 he published *Tales of the Grotesque and Arabesque*. But there was trouble at *Burton's*, and in 1841 Poe left to work as the editor of *Graham's Magazine*. It was becoming clear that two years was about as long as Poe could hold a job, and though he contributed quality fiction and criticism to the magazine, his drinking, his feuding with other writers, and his inability to get along with people caused him to leave after 1842.

Illness and crisis

"The Murders in the Rue Morgue" and "The Man That Was Used Up" emerged in 1843, and a Philadelphia newspaper offered a one-hundred-dollar prize for his story "The Gold Bug," but Poe's problems were increasing. His wife, who had been a vital source of comfort and support to him, began showing signs of the consumption (or tuberculosis, an infection of the lungs) that would eventually kill her. When his troubles became too great, Poe tried to relieve them by drinking, which made him ill. Things seemed to improve slightly in 1844; the publication of the poem "The Raven" brought him some fame, and this success was followed in 1845 by the publication of two volumes, *The Raven and Other Poems* and *Tales*. But his wife's health continued to worsen, and he was still not earning enough money to support her and Clemm.

Poe's next job was with *Godey's Lady's Book*, but he was unable to keep steady employment, and things got so bad that he and his family almost starved in the winter of 1846. Then, on January 30, 1847, Virginia Poe died. Somehow Poe continued to produce work of very high caliber. In 1848 he published the ambitious *Eureka*, and he returned to Richmond in 1849 to court a now-widowed friend of his youth, Mrs. Shelton. They were to be married, and Poe left for New York City at the end of September to bring Clemm back for the wedding. On the way he stopped off in Baltimore, Maryland. No one knows exactly what happened, but he was found unconscious on October 3, 1849, near a saloon that had been used as a polling place. He died in a hospital four days later.

It is not hard to see the connection between the nightmare of Poe's life and his work. His fictional work resembles the dreams of a troubled individual who keeps coming back, night after night, to the same pattern of dream. At times he traces out the pattern lightly, at other times in a "thoughtful" mood, but often the tone is terror. He finds himself descending, into a cellar, a wine vault, or a whirlpool, always falling. The women he meets either change form into someone else or are whisked away completely. And at last he drops off, into a pit or a river or a walled-up tomb.

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SIDNEY POITIER

Born: February 20, 1924

Miami, Florida

African American actor

Actor Sidney Poitier's presence in film during the 1950s and 1960s opened up the possibility for bigger and better roles for African American performers.

Poor childhood

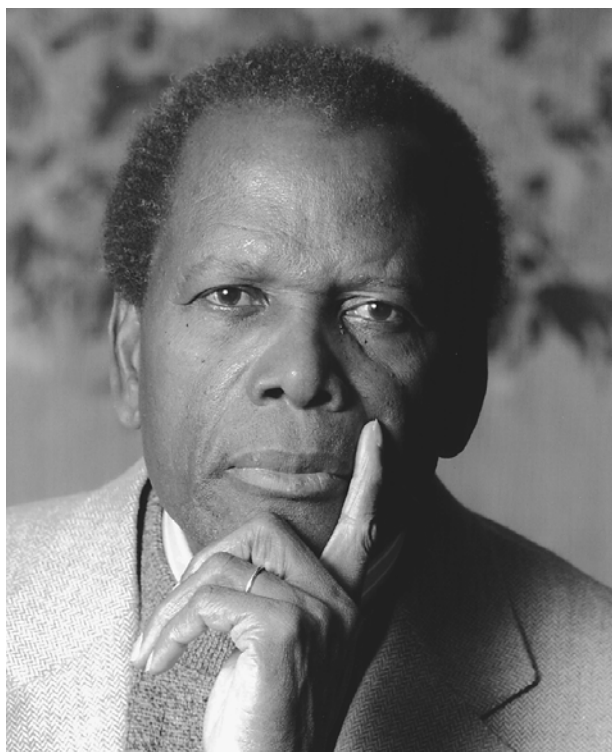
Born on February 20, 1924, in Miami, Florida, but raised in the Bahamas, Sidney Poitier was the son of Reginald and Evelyn Poitier. His father was a tomato farmer, and the family was very poor. Still, Poitier later told Frank Spotnitz in *American Film* that his father "had a wonderful sense of himself. Every time I took a part, from the first part, from the first day, I always said to myself, 'This must reflect well on his name.'" The family moved from the village of Cat Island to Nassau, the Bahamian capital, when Poitier was eleven years old, and it was there that he first experienced the magic of the movies. Poitier returned to Miami at age fifteen to live with his older brother Cyril.

Poitier left for New York City at age sixteen, serving briefly in the army. He then worked as a dishwasher in a restaurant. Seeing an ad for actors in a newspaper, he went to a tryout at the American Negro Theater. Theater cofounder Frederick O'Neal became impatient with Poitier's Caribbean accent and poor reading skills. "He came up on the stage, furious, and grabbed me by the scruff of my pants and my collar and marched me toward the door," Poitier told the *Los Angeles Times*. Poitier, determined to succeed, continued working in the restaurant but listened to radio broadcasts in his spare time to improve his speaking. He later returned to the theater and was hired as a janitor in exchange for acting lessons.

Acting career picks up

Poitier served as an understudy (one who learns a performer's lines in case that performer is unable to perform) for actor-singer Harry Belafonte (1927–) in a play called *Days of Our Youth*, and an appearance one night led to a small role in a production of the Greek comedy *Lysistrata*. On opening night of the latter play Poitier was so nervous that he delivered the wrong lines and ran off the stage; still, his brief appearance so impressed critics that he ended up getting more work.

Poitier made his film debut in the 1950 feature *No Way Out*, playing a doctor tormented by the racist (one who is prejudiced against other races) brother of a man whose life he could not save. Poitier worked steadily throughout the 1950s, appearing in the South African tale *Cry, the Beloved Country*, the classroom drama *The Blackboard Jungle*, and *The Defiant Ones*, in which Poitier and



Sidney Poitier.

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Tony Curtis (1925–) play prison escapees who are chained together; their struggle helps them look past their differences and learn to respect each other.

In the 1960s Poitier began to make his mark on American popular culture. After appearing in the film version of Lorraine Hansberry's play *A Raisin in the Sun*, in a role he had developed on the stage, Poitier took the part of an American serviceman in Germany in *Lilies of the Field* (1963). This role earned him an Academy Award for Best Actor, making him the first African American to earn this honor.

Breaking down barriers

In 1967 Poitier appeared in three hit movies. In *To Sir, With Love* he played a schoolteacher, while in *In the Heat of the Night* he played Virgil Tibbs, a black detective from the North who helps solve a murder in a southern town and wins the respect of the prejudiced police chief there. In the comedy *Guess Who's Coming to Dinner*, also starring Spencer Tracy (1900–1967) and Katherine Hepburn (1907–), Poitier's character is engaged to a white woman. The film was Hollywood's first love story between members of different races that did not end tragically. Reflecting on the feelings of filmmakers during this period, Poitier remarked to Susan Ellicott of the *London Times*, "I suited their need. I was clearly intelligent. I was a pretty good actor. I believed in brotherhood, in a free society. I hated racism, segregation [separation based on race]. And I was a symbol against those things."

Of course, Poitier was more than a symbol. David J. Fox reported in the *Los Angeles Times* that actor James Earl Jones (1931–), at a tribute to Poitier hosted by the American Film Institute (AFI) in 1992, remembered, "He marched on Montgomery and Memphis with Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. [1929–1968], who said of Poitier: 'He's a man who never lost his concern for the least of God's children.'" Rosa Parks (1913–), who in 1955 became a civil rights hero simply by refusing to sit in the "negro" section of a Montgomery bus, attended the tribute and praised Poitier as "a great actor and role model."

Begins directing

In 1972 Poitier costarred with Belafonte in the western *Buck and the Preacher* for

Columbia Pictures. After an argument with the film's director, Poitier took over; though he and Belafonte urged Columbia to hire another director, a studio official saw footage Poitier had shot and encouraged him to finish the film himself. Poitier went on to direct three features starring comedian Bill Cosby (1937–) in the 1970s: *Uptown Saturday Night*, *Let's Do It Again*, and *A Piece of the Action*. They also worked together on the comedy *Ghost Dad* (1990), which was a disaster. Poitier also directed the hit comedy *Stir Crazy* (1980), as well as several other features.

Poitier took only a handful of film roles in the 1980s, but in 1991 he played Supreme Court justice Thurgood Marshall (1908–1993) in the television film *Separate but Equal*. In 1992 he returned to the big screen for the comedy-drama *Sneakers*, which costarred Robert Redford (1937–) and River Phoenix (1970–1993). The AFI tribute to Poitier also took place in 1992; in his speech he welcomed young filmmakers into the fold and urged them to “be true to yourselves and be useful to the journey,” reported *Daily Variety*.

Later years

Poitier and his wife, actress Joanna Shimkus, travel a great deal because they live in California and have children in New York. Poitier returned to television for 1995's western drama *Children of the Dust*. He continued to star in television movies with *To Sir with Love II* (1996) and the Showtime drama *Mandela and de Klerk* (1997). The latter follows the story of Nelson Mandela's (1918–) last years in prison to his election as leader of South Africa. Both received mixed reviews.

In 2000 Poitier received the Screen Actors Guild Lifetime Achievement Award. In

April of that year, *The Measure of a Man: A Spiritual Autobiography* (the story of his own life) was published. In February 2001 Poitier won a Grammy award for best spoken-word album for his reading of the book. Poitier was presented with the NAACP's (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People) Hall of Fame Award in March 2001. In March 2002 Poitier was awarded an honorary Academy Award for his long, dignified career. The award was especially meaningful because it came on the same night that African Americans won both the Best Actor (Denzel Washington) and Best Actress (Halle Berry) awards.

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POL POT

Born: May 19, 1928

Kompong Thom, Cambodia

Died: April 15, 1998

Near Anlong Veng, Cambodia

Cambodian premier

Pol Pot was a leader in the Cambodian Communist movement and became premier of the government of Democ-



Pol Pot.

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ratik Kampuchéa (DK) from 1976 to 1979. He directed the mass killing of intellectuals, professional people, and city dwellers—over a million of his own people.

Early life

Pol Pot was born Saloth Sar on May 19, 1928, near Anlong Veng, Cambodia, the second son of a successful landowner. Pol Pot's father had political connections at the royal court at the Cambodian capital of Phnom Penh, some seventy miles from Prek Sbau, the small hamlet in Kompong Thom province where Pol Pot was born. Visits by court officials and even by Cambodian king Sisowath

Monivong himself to Pol Pot's father's home appear to have been common. Pol Pot often denied that he was Saloth Sar, probably to protect his family. He adopted his new name by 1963, and even after he had become premier, people were unsure of his actual identity.

Pol Pot was a poor student. He was educated by Buddhists and at a private Catholic institution in Phnom Penh, and then enrolled at a technical school (a place where mechanical or scientific subjects are taught) in the town of Kompong Cham to learn carpentry. He later obtained a government scholarship to study radio and electrical technology in Paris. However, in France Pol Pot began to spend less time studying and more time becoming involved with the Communist Party. (Communists believe in revolution to create a society in which the means of production—land, factories, and mines—are owned by the people as a whole rather than by individuals.)

Communist activity

After returning to Cambodia in 1953, Pol Pot drifted into the Vietnamese-influenced "United Khmer Issarak (Freedom) Front" of Cambodian Communists. The Front was one of many Cambodian groups that opposed French control of Cambodia as well as the government of Prince Norodom Sihanouk. After Cambodia won its independence from the French in 1954 Pol Pot became involved with the Khmer People's Revolutionary Party (KPRP), the first Cambodian Communist party. His hatred for intellectuals (people who think, study, and understand) and politicians grew during this time. He was influenced by Tou Samouth, a former Front president who was interested in making the

KPRP a genuinely Cambodian organization that could rally members of different groups against Sihanouk. The KPRP had conflicts with the Vietnamese, who wanted to control the anti-Sihanouk Cambodian resistance.

In September 1960 Pol Pot and a handful of followers met secretly at the Phnom Penh railroad station to found the “Workers Party of Kampuchéa” (WPK). Samouth was named secretary general. By 1963 Pol Pot had replaced Samouth as party secretary, and Samouth later disappeared under mysterious circumstances. For the next thirteen years Pol Pot and other WPK members disappeared from public view and set up their party organization in a remote forest area. During this period Pol Pot worked to strengthen his leadership position in the WPK and to hold down Vietnamese elements in the anti-Sihanouk movement. However, he carefully avoided a feud with the Vietnamese Communists, who were increasing their hold on parts of Cambodian territory. He also traveled to Beijing, China, to receive organizational training. Upon his return to Cambodia in 1966, the WPK changed its name to the Communist Party of Kampuchéa (CPK).

The CPK led many demonstrations against the Sihanouk administration, which caused Sihanouk to order the execution of dozens of CPK members, whom he referred to as the Khmer Rouge (“Red Khmers”). In December 1969 and January 1970 Pol Pot and other CPK leaders prepared to take down Sihanouk. But the military in Phnom Penh beat them to it, overthrowing Sihanouk in March 1970 and bringing Lon Nol to the Cambodian presidency. In 1971 Pol Pot was reelected as CPK secretary general and as commander of its “Revolutionary Army.” The

Vietnamese became angry when the CPK refused their request to begin talks with Lon Nol and the United States as Vietnamese-U.S. discussions took place in Paris. By terms of the Paris Accords, the Vietnamese pulled some of their troops out of Cambodia in early 1973. CPK “Revolutionary Army” units quickly took their place, and clashes between Lon Nol’s and Pol Pot’s forces continued.

Killing his own people

In April 1975 Phnom Penh fell to several Communist Cambodian and pro-Sihanouk groups. For nearly a year Pol Pot and other Cambodian Communists, as well as Sihanouk, struggled for power in the new state of “Democratic Kampuchéa.” Another CPK party congress in January 1976 led to Pol Pot’s reelection as secretary general, but also revealed differences of opinion between Pol Pot and other members of the party. Relations with Vietnam also continued to worsen. In April 1976, after the decision by Sihanouk to step down as head of state, a new Democratic Kampuchéa (DK) government was proclaimed, and Pol Pot became premier. However, his authority was challenged by Vietnam-influenced party leaders. Beginning in November 1976 Pol Pot began to remove many of his rivals, including cabinet ministers and other top party leaders.

Meanwhile, Pol Pot’s reform policies drove many people from major cities and forced tens of thousands into labor. The Cambodians were denied food and medical care, and mass killings of all suspected opponents—especially intellectuals or those with political experience—took place. Pol Pot was responsible for the deaths of over one million Cambodians—nearly 20 percent of the coun-

try's total population. Although opposition to Pol Pot was growing among party members, his visits to China and North Korea in September and October 1977 increased his standing among other Asian Communist leaders, even as fighting with Vietnamese border forces grew worse.

The fall of a dictator

Continued Vietnamese attacks on DK territory left Pol Pot with a shaky hold on power, and finally he and other DK leaders were forced to flee Phnom Penh in January 1979. They regrouped and established an underground government in western Cambodia and in the Cardamom mountain range. In July 1979 Pol Pot was sentenced to death in absentia (without him being present) for the murder of his own people. The sentence was issued by the new government of the "People's Republic of Kampuchéa," installed with the help of Vietnamese forces. With world attention focused on Cambodia, Pol Pot stepped down as DK prime minister in December 1979. However, he remained as party secretary general and as head of the CPK's military commission, making him the overall commander of the DK's thirty-thousand-man force battling the Vietnamese in Cambodia.

Little was known of Pol Pot's activities after that. In September 1985 the DK announced that Pol Pot had retired as commander of the DK's "National Army" and had been appointed to be "Director of the Higher Institute for National Defense." After several years of living underground, Pol Pot was finally captured in June 1997. The Khmer Rouge had suffered from internal conflicts in recent years and finally split into opposing forces, the largest of which joined with the government of Cambo-

dia under Sihanouk and hunted down their former leader. Pol Pot was sentenced to life in prison. While under house arrest, he died of heart failure on April 15, 1998.

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MARCO POLO

Born: c. 1254

Venice

Died: January 8, 1324

Venice

Venetian explorer and writer

The traveler and writer Marco Polo left Venice for Cathay (now China) in 1271, spent seventeen years in Kublai Khan's (1215–1294) empire, and returned to Venice in 1295. His account of his experiences is one of the most important travel documents ever written.

Family business

Born into a noble family of Venetian merchants, Marco Polo began his long expe-

rience with Cathay through the adventures of his father, Niccolo, and his uncle, Maffeo Polo, partners in a trading operation at a time when Venice was the world leader in foreign commerce. The Polos had left Venice to travel all the way to Peking, China, and back when Marco was only six years old. During their nine-year absence, Marco was raised by his mother and other members of his extended family. He became a tough, loyal, observant young man, eager to please and interested in adventure.

Marco Polo's father and uncle were well received in China by the Mongol prince Kublai Khan in 1266. The Polos impressed Kublai Khan with their intelligence and their knowledge of the world. For these reasons he kept them around for several years. In 1269 he sent them to Rome as his messengers with a request that the pope send one hundred Europeans to share their knowledge with him. Although the pope did not grant the request, the Polo brothers, in search of further profit and adventure, set out to return to China in 1271. Since his mother had died recently, Marco Polo was taken along on the trip, marking his debut, or first appearance, as a world traveler at age seventeen. The return to China, over land and sea, desert and mountain, took slightly more than three years.

Despite their failure to bring back the one hundred Europeans from Rome, Kublai Khan welcomed the Polos back and again took them into his service. He became increasingly impressed with Marco Polo, who, like his father and uncle, demonstrated not only his ability to travel but also his knowledge of the Mongol language and his remarkable powers of observation.



Marco Polo.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Years in China

With the approval of Kublai Khan, the Polos began widespread trading ventures within his empire. While on these business trips around the empire, Marco Polo demonstrated his quick mind and his ability to relate what he saw in clear, understandable terms. His reports, which formed the basis of his famous account of his travels, contained information on local customs, business conditions, and events. It was in these reports that he displayed his talent as an objective and accurate observer. Kublai Khan read and used these reports to keep informed of developments within his empire.

All three of the European visitors were kept on as messengers and advisers. The younger Polo was used on several extended missions that sent him traveling over much of China and even beyond. By his own account he came near the edge of Tibet and northern Burma. This relationship between the Polos and Kublai Khan lasted more than sixteen years, during which Marco served as Kublai Khan's personal representative in the city of Yangchow, China.

Leaving the khan

Although the Polos enjoyed the profits of their enterprise, they longed to return to Venice to enjoy their wealth. They were prevented from returning for a time because Kublai Khan was unwilling to release them from his service. Their chance to return to Europe came in 1292, when they were sent on a mission to Persia and then to Rome. The assignment represented Kublai Khan's way of releasing them from their obligations to him. In Persia they were to arrange a marriage between one of Kublai Khan's regional rulers and a Mongol princess. They were forced to remain in Persia for nearly a year when the man who was supposed to be married died and a new groom had to be found. From the Persian court, the Venetians continued their journey home, arriving in 1295 after an absence of nearly twenty-five years.

Marco Polo did not return to Asia again. He entered the service of Venice in its war against the rival city-state of Genoa. In 1298 Marco served as a gentleman-commander of a ship in the Venetian navy. In September 1298 he was captured and imprisoned in Genoa. He was famous for his adventures, and as a result he was

treated with unusual courtesy for a prisoner and released within a year. Little is known of Marco Polo's life after his return to Venice. He apparently returned to private life and business until his death in 1324.

Record of his travels

While imprisoned in Genoa, Marco Polo related the story of his travels to a fellow prisoner named Rusticiano, a man from Pisa, Italy, who wrote in the romantic style of thirteenth-century literature. A combination of Marco Polo's gift of observation and the writing style of Rusticiano emerged in the final version of Marco Polo's travels. The book included Polo's personal remembrances as well as stories related to him by others.

In his book, which was translated into many languages, Polo left a wealth of information. The information contained in his maps has proved remarkably accurate when tested by modern methods. His observations about customs and local characteristics have also been proven true by research.

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JUAN PONCE DE LEÓN

Born: c. 1460

San Servas, Spain

Died: July 1521

Havana, Cuba

Spanish explorer and conqueror

The Spanish conqueror and explorer Juan Ponce de León conquered the island of Puerto Rico and explored the coastline of Florida, which he claimed for the Spanish crown.

Early life

Juan Ponce de León was born in San Servas, Spain. Although born into a noble family, he was poor, and like many in similar situations, he sought fame and fortune as a soldier. He received an education in fighting skills, manners, and religion while serving a knight named Pedro Nunez de Guzman, and later helped in the ten-year conquest of the Muslim kingdom of Granada in southern Spain.

Afterward, Ponce de León heard stories of Christopher Columbus's (c. 1451–1506) discovery of a new world and volunteered to go along on a return trip. In September 1493 he was one of twelve hundred men who set out for the island of Hispaniola (modern Dominican Republic and Haiti). Ponce de León survived disease, bad weather, and a shortage of food and drink to help colonize the new lands by forcing the Indians into slavery.

Conquering and governing

Ponce de León spent most of the early 1500s in Hispaniola, establishing farms, dis-

tributing land rights, helping construct buildings to aid in defense, and working to set up an island economy (system of production, distribution, and use of goods and services). He also married and fathered four children. He was named deputy governor of Hispaniola by Governor Nicolas de Ovando after helping put down an Indian uprising in the eastern province of the island in 1504.

The Indians told Ponce de León that he would find gold on a neighboring island to the east, called Boriquien (Puerto Rico). Four years later he crossed over and conquered the island. During the conquest he shared the honors with a famous greyhound dog named Bercerillo. It was said that the Indians were more afraid of ten Spaniards with the dog than one hundred without him. Ponce de León was appointed governor of Puerto Rico by King Ferdinand of Spain (1452–1516). The island became popular with other settlers because it was well run by Ponce de León and it had a large number of slaves and many natural resources. Ponce de León was also noted for his nonviolent treatment of the Indians, which was rare for the time.

Stripped of his title as governor by King Ferdinand in 1512 after a political conflict, Ponce de León obtained permission from the king to discover and settle the island of Bimini, which was believed to lie somewhere to the northwest. He was also interested in locating a famous body of water that was said to have the power to restore youth to the aged. This myth, repeated to Ponce de León by the Indians, was of European origin. According to the legend, the spring was in the Garden of Eden, which was located somewhere in Asia (the early Spaniards believed America to be Asia).



Juan Ponce de León.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Important discoveries

In March 1513 Ponce de León sailed from Puerto Rico and a month later anchored near the mouth of the St. Johns River on the northeast coast of Florida. Impressed with its many beautiful flowers, and having landed on Easter day, he named the land Florida, from the Spanish *Pascua florida*, or “flowery Easter.” While traveling southward he encountered the strong current of the Gulf Stream as it poured through a channel. He had discovered the Bahama Channel, which later became the route of the treasure ships on their return voyage to Spain. He continued exploring the East Coast and then sailed up the Gulf Coast to

Pensacola Bay. During his return voyage to Puerto Rico he sighted several small islands crowded with tortoises and named the islands the Tortugas, or “tortoises.”

In 1514 Ponce de León returned to Spain where he received another grant, to establish colonies in the “Island of Florida” at his own expense. In February 1521 the colonizing expedition landed on the Florida coast near Charlotte Harbor. A fierce attack by Native Americans caused the settlement to be left abandoned. Ponce de León, wounded in the battle, died a few days after returning to Cuba. He was buried in Puerto Rico; the words on his gravestone read, “Here rest the bones of a valiant LION [León], mightier in deeds than in name.”

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ALEXANDER POPE

Born: May 21, 1688

London, England

Died: May 30, 1744

London, England

English poet

The English poet Alexander Pope is regarded as one of the finest poets and satirists (people who use wit or sarcasm to point out and devalue sin or silliness) of the Augustan (mid-seventeenth to mid-eighteenth century English literature) period and one of the major influences on English literature in this time and after.

Early years

Alexander Pope was born on May 21, 1688, in London, England, to Alexander and Edith Pope. His Roman Catholic father was a linen merchant. His family moved out of London and settled in Binfield in Windsor Forest around 1700. Pope had little formal schooling. He educated himself through extensive studying and reading, especially poetry.

Although Pope was healthy and plump in his infancy, he became severely ill later in his childhood, which resulted in a slightly disfigured body—he never grew taller than 4 feet 6 inches. He suffered from curvature of the spine, which required him to wear a stiff canvas brace. He had constant headaches. His physical appearance, frequently ridiculed by his enemies, undoubtedly gave an edge to Pope's satire (humor aimed at human weaknesses), but he was always warmhearted and generous in his affection for his many friends.

Early poems

Pope was precocious (showed the characteristics of an older person at a young age) as a child and attracted the notice of a noted bookseller who published his *Pastorals* (1709). By this time Pope was already at



Alexander Pope.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

work on his more ambitious *Essay on Criticism* (1711) designed to create a rebirth of the contemporary literary scene.

The Rape of the Lock (1712) immediately made Pope famous as a poet. It was a long humorous poem in the classical style (likeness to ancient Greek and Roman writing). Instead of treating the subject of heroic deeds, though, the poem was about the attempt of a young man to get a lock of hair from his beloved's head. It was based on a true event that happened to people he knew. Several other poems were published by 1717, the date of the first collected edition of Pope's works.

Translations of Homer

Pope also engaged in poetic imitations and translations. His *Messiah* (1712) was an imitation of Virgil (70–19 B.C.E.). He also did a version of Geoffrey Chaucer's (1342–1400) poetry in the English of Pope's day. But it was Pope's versions of Homer (c. 700 B.C.E.) that were his greatest achievement as a translator.

Pope undertook the translation of Homer's *Iliad* because he needed money. The interest earned from his father's annuities (money from investments) had dropped sharply. The translation occupied him until 1720. It was a great financial success, making Pope independent of the customary forms of literary patronage (support from wealthy people), and it was highly praised by critics.

From the time parts of *Iliad* began to appear, Pope became the victim of numerous pamphlet attacks on his person, politics, and religion. In 1716 an increased land tax on Roman Catholics forced the Popes to sell their place at Binfield and to settle at Chiswick. The next year Pope's father died, and in 1719 the poet's increased wealth enabled him to move with his mother to Twickenham.

From 1725 to 1726 Pope was engaged in a version of *Odyssey*. He worked with two other translators, William Broome and Elijah Fenton. They completed half of the translation between them. It was Pope's name, however, that sold the work, and he naturally received the lion's share (biggest part) of the profits.

Editorial work

Pope also undertook several editorial projects. Parnell's *Poems* (1721) was followed by an edition of the late Duke of Bucking-

ham's *Works* (1723). Then, in 1725, Pope's six volumes on the works of William Shakespeare (1564–1616) were published. Pope's edits and explanatory notes were notoriously capricious (impulsive and not scholarly). His edition was attacked by Lewis Theobald in *Shakespeare Restored* (1726), a work that revealed a superior knowledge of editorial technique. This upset Pope, who then made Theobald the original hero of *Dunciad*.

The Dunciad

In 1726 and 1727 the writer Jonathan Swift (1667–1745) was in England and a guest of Pope. Together they published three volumes of poetry. Renewed contact with Swift must have given a driving force to Pope's poem on "Dulness," which appeared as the three-book *Dunciad* (1728). Theobald was the prime dunce, and the next year the poem was enlarged by a burlesque (broad comedy) on commentators and textual critics.

Clearly Pope used *Dunciad* as personal satire to pay off many old scores. But it was also prompted by his distaste for that whole process by which worthless writers gained undeserved literary prominence (fame). The parody (comic imitation) of the classical epic (heroic poem) was accompanied by further mock-heroic elements, including the intervention of a goddess, the epic games of the second book, and the visit to the underworld and the vision of future "glories." Indeed, despite its devastating satire, *Dunciad* was essentially a phantasmagoric (created by the imagination) treatment by a great comic genius. In 1742 Pope published a fourth book to *Dunciad* separately, and his last published work was the four-volume *Dunciad* in 1743.

An Essay on Man

Pope's friendship with the former statesman Henry St. John Bolingbroke, who had settled a few miles from Twickenham, stimulated his interest in philosophy and led to the composition of *An Essay on Man*. Some ideas expressed in it were probably suggested by Bolingbroke. For example, the notion that earthly happiness is enough to justify the ways of God to man was consistent with Bolingbroke's thinking.

In essence, the *Essay* is not philosophy (the study of knowledge) but a poet's belief of unity despite differences, of an order embracing the whole multifaceted (many-sided) creation. Pope's sources were ideas that had a long history in Western thought. The most central of these was the doctrine of plenitude, which Pope expressed through the metaphors (a figure of speech in which words or phrases are used to find similarities in things that are not comparable) of a "chain" or "scale" of being. He also asserted that the discordant (not harmonious) parts of life are bound harmoniously together.

Later years

Pope wrote *Imitations of Horace* from 1733 to 1738. (Horace was a Roman poet who lived from 65 to 8 B.C.E.) He also wrote many "epistles" (letters to friends) and defenses of his use of personal and political satire. As Pope grew older he became more ill. He described his life as a "long disease," and asthma increased his sufferings in his later years. At times during the last month of his life he became delirious. Pope died on May 30, 1744, and was buried in Twickenham Church.

Alexander Pope used language with genuine inventiveness. His qualities of imagination are seen in the originality with which he handled traditional forms, in his satiric vision of the contemporary world, and in his inspired use of classical models.

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COLE PORTER

Born: June 9, 1891

Peru, Indiana

Died: October 15, 1964

Santa Monica, California

American composer

American composer Cole Porter wrote songs—both words and music—for more than thirty stage and film musicals. His best work set standards of sophistication (appealing to good taste) and wit seldom matched in the popular musical theater.

Early life and education

Cole Albert Porter was born in Peru, Indiana, on June 9, 1891, the son of a phar-



Cole Porter.

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macist. His mother was determined that her only son become a creative artist, while his wealthy Midwestern pioneer (someone who settles new land) grandfather was determined that he enter business or farming. Cole's mother's influence proved stronger, and Porter received considerable musical training as a child. He began playing violin and piano at age six. He learned circus acrobatics watching the Hagenbeck and Wallace circus, which spent its winters nearby. By 1901 he had composed a one-song "operetta" (a short opera) entitled *The Song of the Birds*, and a piano piece, "The Bobolink Waltz," which his mother published in Chicago, Illinois.

Porter attended Worcester Academy in Massachusetts, where he composed the class song of 1909. At Yale (1909–1913) he wrote music and collaborated (worked with others) on lyrics for the scores of several amateur shows presented by his fraternity (social club at colleges and universities) and the Yale Dramatic Association.

Porter then entered Harvard Law School. Almost at once, however, he changed his course of study to music. Before leaving Harvard he collaborated on a comic operetta, *See America First* (1916), which became his first show produced on Broadway. It was a complete disaster.

Becomes a success

In 1917 Porter was in France, and for some months during 1918 and 1919 he served in the French Foreign Legion. After this he studied composition (music writing) briefly with the composer Vincent d'Indy in Paris, France. Returning to New York, he contributed songs to the Broadway production *Hitchy-Koo* of 1919, his first success. Also in 1919 he married the wealthy socialite (someone who keeps company with well-respected people) Linda Lee Thomas. The Porters began a lifetime of traveling on a grand scale and became famous for their lavish parties and the circle of celebrities in which they moved.

Porter contributed songs to various stage shows and films and in 1923 composed a ballet, *Within the Quota*, which was performed in Paris and New York. Songs such as "Let's Do It" (1928), "What Is This Thing Called Love" (1929), "You Do Something to Me" (1929), and "Love for Sale" (1930) established him as a creator of worldly, witty, occa-

sionally risqué (off-color) lyrics with unusual melodic lines to match.

In the 1930s and 1940s Porter provided full scores for a number of bright Broadway and Hollywood productions, among them *Anything Goes* (1934), *Jubilee* (1935), *Rosalie* (1937), *Panama Hattie* (1940), and *Kiss Me Kate* (1948). These scores and others of the period abound with his characteristic songs: "Night and Day," "I Get a Kick out of You," "You're the Top," "Anything Goes," "Begin the Beguine," "Just One of Those Things," "Don't Fence Me In," "In the Still of the Night," and "So in Love."

Later years

Serious injuries from a riding accident in 1937 plagued Porter for the remainder of his life. A series of operations led to the amputation (cutting off) of his right leg in 1958. In his last years he produced one big Broadway success (*Can-Can*; 1953). Cole Porter died on October 15, 1964, in Santa Monica, California.

Porter's songs show an elegance of expression (wording) and a cool detachment that are a perfect example of the kind of sophistication unique to the 1930s. He was also a truly talented creator of original melodies. Like George Gershwin (1898–1937), he frequently disregarded the accepted formulas of the conventional popular song and turned out pieces of charm and distinction.

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KATHERINE ANNE PORTER

Born: May 15, 1890

Indian Creek, Texas

Died: September 18, 1980

Silver Spring, Maryland

American author

American writer Katherine Anne Porter, winner of a Pulitzer Prize in 1966, was known for her delicate observations and precise descriptions.

Early life

Katherine Anne Porter was born on May 15, 1890, in Indian Creek, Texas, the fourth of five children of Harrison Boone Porter and Mary Alice Jones. She was a descendant of Jonathan Boone, brother of the famous explorer Daniel Boone (1734–1820), and her father, a farmer, was a second cousin of the writer O. Henry (Sidney Porter) (1862–1910). After her mother died in 1892, Porter and her siblings went to live with their grandmother. After her grandmother died in 1901, Porter was sent to several convent (an establishment of nuns) schools in Texas and Louisiana. In



Katherine Ann Porter.

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1906 Porter ran away from school and got married; she was divorced three years later. In 1914 she went to Chicago, Illinois, to pursue an acting career. She returned to Texas later that year and worked briefly as a singer.

From early childhood Porter had been writing stories, an activity she described as the passion of her life. In 1917 she joined the staff of the *Critic*, a Fort Worth, Texas, weekly newspaper, and in 1918 and 1919 she worked for the *Rocky Mountain News* in Denver, Colorado, writing mostly book reviews and political articles. She then moved to New York City, where she continued to write. During the 1920s she traveled often to Mexico,

wrote articles about the country, and studied art. She also worked on a biography of minister and author Cotton Mather (1663–1728) and wrote some book reviews.

Published works

Porter's first volume of stories, *Flowering Judas* (1930), impressed critics, although it did not sell very well. It won a Guggenheim fellowship (an award with a cash prize intended to be used for study or research) that allowed her to study abroad, and after a brief stay in Mexico she sailed in 1932 to Bremerhaven, Germany (which provided the setting for her only novel, *Ship of Fools*). A second volume of stories, *Hacienda* (1934), and a short novel, *Noon Wine* (1937), followed her marriage in 1933 to Eugene Pressly, a member of the U.S. Foreign Service in Paris, France. After divorcing Pressly, she married Albert Russell Erskine Jr., whom she divorced in 1942.

Pale Horse, Pale Rider (1942) consists of three short novels, including *Noon Wine*. The title work is a bitter, tragic tale of a young woman's love for a soldier who dies of influenza (the flu). The title story of *The Leaning Tower and Other Stories* (1944), set in Berlin, Germany, deals with the menace of Nazism (a German political movement that scorned democracy and attempted to wipe out other races of people, such as the Jews, who were considered inferior to the Germans). *The Days Before* (1952) is a collection of essays. *Ship of Fools* (1962) was a best seller but drew mixed reviews. Based on Sebastian Brant's (c. 1458–1521) fifteenth-century novel *Das Narrenschiff*, it examines the lives of an international group of voyagers, whose human folly alters their personal lives and blinds them to the growth of Nazism.

Porter was for many years more popular everywhere else in the country but her home state of Texas, where stories of cowboys and the old west were more popular than anything else. Her unhappiness with the social injustice and lack of rights for women in the state was one of the factors that led her to leave, and she often addressed these issues in her writings. Still, Porter came to be considered the best author who ever hailed from Texas. She won a Texas Institute of Letters fiction award for *Ship of Fools* and a Pulitzer Prize for her *Collected Stories* in 1966.

Later years

Porter chose the University of Maryland, from which she had received a honorary degree (a degree achieved without meeting the usual requirements) in 1966, as the site of her personal library, begun with donations of some personal papers. In Texas, her childhood home in Kyle was turned into a museum. In addition, the Southwestern Writers Collection at Southwest Texas State University contains her typewritten recipe for a “genuine Mole Poblana,” Mexico’s “National Dish,” she wrote, with chili and chocolate (*Texas Monthly*, January 1997). Apparently learned during two years living in Mexico, it was a tribute to her exciting life after her abandonment of her early, strict religious upbringing.

Katherine Anne Porter died on September 18, 1980, in Silver Spring, Maryland. Her ashes were buried at Indian Creek beside her mother’s grave. However, her writing continued to live on. The *Letters of Katherine Anne Porter* were published after her death.

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EMILY POST

Born: October 3, 1873

Baltimore, Maryland

Died: September 25, 1960

New York, New York

American author

For many years a leading authority on socially correct behavior, Emily Post provided solutions to social problems. With a name that became linked with proper manners in the minds of many, she was a successful author, newspaper columnist, and radio broadcaster.

Privileged childhood

Born into a wealthy family in Baltimore, Maryland, Emily Price’s birth date is variously reported as October 3, 27, or 30, 1873. She was the only child of Bruce Price, an architect, and Josephine Lee Price. Growing up in an era of servants and chaperones (older people who accompany younger peo-



Emily Post.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

ple to social gatherings to make sure they behave), Emily was educated at home and attended a finishing school (a school that prepares girls for social life) in New York, New York, where her family had moved. She also traveled to Canada, France, and Italy with her father, often going with him to check on the progress of the buildings he had designed. She married Edwin Main Post, a banker, in 1892, and they had two sons.

Begins writing

Emily Post and her husband drifted apart, and his cheating caused the marriage to end in a divorce in 1905. She asked for no

money from him since he had lost almost everything in a stock market crash. To add to her small income and support herself and her sons, Post began writing short stories that were published in the popular fiction magazines *Ainslie's* and *Everybody's*. She also produced wrote several novels. The first, *The Flight of a Moth* (1904), was about a young American widow attracted to a crooked Russian nobleman.

As a successful writer and a woman of social position, Post was encouraged by an editor at the Funk and Wagnalls publishing company to write a book on etiquette (proper social behavior). *Etiquette—The Blue Book of Social Usage*, first published in 1922, quickly became a best-seller, bringing her fame and fortune.

Etiquette expert

Post's guiding belief was that good manners began with consideration for the feelings of others and included good form in speech, knowledge of proper social graces, and charm. She believed that the best way to do almost anything was the way that pleased the greatest number of people and offended the fewest. Before her book had been out a month, readers bombarded her with questions the book had not addressed, and these formed the basis of later versions of the book.

Etiquette was originally written for the newly rich who wanted to live, entertain, and speak like the wealthy. The focus of later versions of the book, however, was the character of "Mrs. Three-In-One," a wonder woman who acted as cook, waitress, and charming hostess at small dinner parties. Post also started a column of questions and answers that

appeared in 150 newspapers and received as many as twenty-six thousand letters a year at her New York office and more at newspapers in other cities. During the 1930s she appeared three times a week on her own radio program, which continued for eight years.

Although Post's advice on social behavior changed over the years, even in later versions of the book she refused to give up the idea of the chaperone. She also maintained an earlier belief that it was improper for a woman to visit a man alone in his apartment or to go on overnight automobile trips. Her "Blue Book," which was the American standard of etiquette for years, was reported to be second only to the Bible as the book most often stolen from libraries.

Later years

Emily Post maintained her social position, traveled in Europe, and always spent the summer months away from New York City at a home in Tuxedo Park, New York (designed and built by her father), and later in life at Edgartown, Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts. She wrote other books besides her writings on etiquette, including: *The Emily Post Cook Book* (1951); *The Personality of a House* (1930), partly based on her experiences rebuilding and remodeling her summer home at Martha's Vineyard; and *Children Are People* (1940), much of which came from hours time she spent with her grandson. In 1946 she formed the Emily Post Institute, headed by her son Edwin, to study problems the issues of gracious living.

Emily Post remained active throughout her life, awakening early, but remaining in bed to devote time to letters and her daily column. She always made her first appear-

ance of the day at lunch, which was served promptly at one o'clock. The expert on American etiquette, whose name became a household word, died in her New York apartment on September 25, 1960, at the age of eighty-six.

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COLIN POWELL

Born: April 5, 1937

New York, New York

*African American soldier, military official,
and secretary of state*

During Colin Powell's long and impressive military and government career, he has served in some of the country's highest positions, including chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. When President George W. Bush (1946–) chose Powell for the job of secretary of state, he became the first African American to ever serve in this position.

A young soldier

Colin Luther Powell was born in the Harlem neighborhood of New York, New



Colin Powell.

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York, on April 5, 1937. His parents were immigrants from Jamaica. He spent most of his childhood in the South Bronx neighborhood of New York City, which was then regarded as a step up from Harlem. The neighborhood included white, African American, and Puerto Rican residents. Powell has said that he never thought of himself as a "minority" while a child.

Despite his parents' urgings that he should "strive for a good education" in order to "make something" of his life, Powell remained an ordinary student throughout high school. At City College of New York, however, Powell discovered his leadership

skills after joining the army's Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC). He graduated from the program in 1958 and was made a second lieutenant (an army officer who is below all other officers) in the U.S. Army. He was then assigned to duty in West Germany. In 1962 he met and married Alma Vivian Johnson, with whom he eventually had three children.

Powell's next overseas assignment was in South Vietnam. At the time the United States was involved in the Vietnam War (1955–75; a civil war in which anti-Communist forces in South Vietnam, supported by the United States, were fighting against a takeover by Communist forces in North Vietnam). During his first tour of duty in Vietnam (1962–63), Powell was wounded in action. He returned for a second tour (1968–69) and received the Soldier's Medal for pulling several men from a burning helicopter.

Working in Washington

After his second tour in Vietnam, Powell returned to the United States and studied for a master's degree in business administration at George Washington University in Washington, D.C. He received the degree in 1971, then went to work at the Pentagon, the headquarters of the U.S. Department of Defense and military services. He then moved on to a position in the Office of Management and Budget under the director, Caspar Weinberger (1917–), and his deputy, Frank Carlucci (1930–). These two men were to have a major influence on Powell's career.

In the late 1970s, Powell attained the rank of major general (an army officer who is above a brigadier general) and held positions in the Pentagon and Department of Energy. In 1983 he became a military assistant to

Weinberger, who was then the secretary of defense under President Ronald Reagan (1911–). While Powell was assisting Weinberger, his advice was sought by the National Security Council (NSC), the agency within the executive branch that advises the president on affairs relating to national security. The NSC wanted to make a secret sale of weapons to Iran in the belief that it would help to free American hostages that were being held in Lebanon by terrorist groups supporting Iran. Powell advised the NSC that the sale was illegal. His opposition helped to establish a reputation for having strong moral character that later served him well and that kept him from being harmed when the NSC's illegal arms deal was eventually exposed.

In 1986 Powell was asked by President Reagan to become Frank Carlucci's deputy on the NSC. He replaced Carlucci as national security adviser (head of the NSC) in 1987 and held the post for the rest of the Reagan administration. Arms control and attempts to overthrow the socialist government of Nicaragua were high priorities for Powell and other policy-makers during this period.

Heading the Joint Chiefs of Staff

When President-elect George Bush (1924–) told Powell that he wished to name a new national security adviser, Powell could have chosen to leave the army to earn a substantial income giving lectures or consulting in the business world. However, Powell did not retire. Instead, having been promoted to full general (an army officer who is above a lieutenant general), he took over the army's Forces Command. In this position he was responsible for overseeing the readiness of over a million regular, reserve, and National

Guard personnel in the United States. Powell took on more responsibility when he was nominated by President Bush in 1989 to become chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS; the group that is responsible for giving military information and advice to the president, the secretary of defense, and the National Security Council). Powell was the first black officer to hold this post.

As chairman of the JCS, Powell played a key role in the December 1989 American military invasion of Panama to unseat that country's military leader, Manuel Noriega (1938–). Earlier in 1989, Noriega, who had been in control of the Panamanian government since 1983, had cancelled presidential elections. Noriega was also involved in the buying and selling of illegal drugs and other unlawful activities. The U.S. government overthrew Noriega in an effort to bring the leader to the United States to be tried on drug charges, to protect Americans, and to give the Panamanian people back their freedom. Television appearances in which Powell explained the purpose of the operation brought him to the favorable attention of the American public.

Powell was also highly visible during Operation Desert Shield. This was a joint effort by the United States and several other nations to pressure Saddam Hussein (1937–), the president of the Middle Eastern nation Iraq, into removing his forces from the neighboring country of Kuwait. Iraq had occupied Kuwait in August 1990. It soon became apparent that this operation, unlike the one in Panama, would take months to decide and involved the risk of high casualties (deaths of soldiers) if war broke out between the Iraqis and the international forces.

Operation Desert Shield turned into Operation Desert Storm on January 16, 1991, beginning the six-week conflict that was known as the Persian Gulf War. Powell again demonstrated his leadership during this time, and the Iraqi army was swiftly crushed. For his part in this war, Powell was awarded a Congressional gold medal.

Secretary of State

After Powell retired from the military in 1993, he was often mentioned as a potential candidate for president. While many hoped that he would run for president in 1996, he announced in 1995 that he would not do so. Instead, Powell supported George W. Bush in the campaign that led to Bush's election in 2000. On December 16, 2000, Bush announced that he would name Powell as his secretary of state, the nation's top foreign policy position. Powell was the first African American named to this post.

On September 11, 2001, anti-American terrorists crashed jet planes into the Pentagon and into the two towers of the World Trade Center in New York City. The attack killed thousands and led Bush to declare that the United States would pursue a "war on terrorism." The Bush administration's efforts concentrated initially on targets in Afghanistan, and Powell's greatest challenge was to build support for the American "war" among Arab and Muslim governments. As the effort to stamp out terrorism continued, Powell was perceived as a force for moderation in the Bush government, pushing for the building of alliances and for restraint when others argued for more aggressive military action.

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DITH PRAN

Born: September 27, 1942

Siem Reap, Cambodia

Cambodian journalist, photographer, and activist

Dith Pran was a Cambodian journalist who suffered four years of abusive treatment after the Communist Khmer Rouge forces took over his country in 1975. Pran eventually escaped and became a crusader for justice in Cambodia. His story was portrayed in the 1984 movie *The Killing Fields*.

Early years

Dith Pran was born on September 27, 1942, in the town of Siem Reap, Cambodia. At that time, the Japanese army occupied

Cambodia, which belonged to French Indochina, but Pran's home was far from the center of power. Pran grew up in a middle-class family near the ruins of ancient temples called Angkor Wat with his two sisters and three brothers. His father, Dith Proeung, was a public-works official who supervised the building of roads. Pran attended local schools, where he learned French. He learned English on his own, and after finishing high school in 1960, he went to work as an interpreter (a person who translates from one language into another) for the U.S. Military Assistance Command in Cambodia.

The war next door

After World War II (1939–45) Communist rebels in neighboring Vietnam fought against French attempts to take over their country. (Communists believe in revolution to achieve a society in which the means of production—land, factories, and mines—are owned by the people as a whole rather than by individuals.) The Communists drove the French forces out, gained control over North Vietnam, and began fighting anti-Communist forces in the south, which were supported by the United States. Although Cambodia remained fairly peaceful, Vietnamese troops from both sides began using the country as a place of refuge. In 1965 Cambodia's government ended its relations with the United States, charging that U.S. troops had entered the country's borders to pursue their enemies.

After the U.S. withdrawal, Pran found work with a British film crew and at a hotel near Angkor Wat. In 1970 a U.S.-backed leader, Lon Nol, seized power in the Cambodian capital of Phnom Penh. War broke out between Lon Nol's forces and those of the



Dith Pran.

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Khmer Rouge, or “Red Cambodians,” another Communist group. The Khmer Rouge wanted Cambodia to return to farming to meet its citizens' needs and to destroy anything linked to the West. Pran moved his family to Phnom Penh and was hired as a guide and interpreter for *New York Times* reporters in the area, including Sydney Schanberg, who had come to Phnom Penh in 1972. The two became close friends, and by 1973 Pran worked only with Schanberg.

As the war continued, the Khmer Rouge seemed to become stronger. Meanwhile the United States had pulled its troops out of Vietnam, which was then overtaken by Com-

munist forces. In April 1975 American personnel left Phnom Penh as well. Knowing that the Khmer Rouge was about to win, thousands of Cambodians scrambled to escape. Pran helped his wife and their four children escape on a U.S. military truck, but he stayed to help Schanberg report the story of the Khmer Rouge takeover. Both men hoped that with the takeover complete, things would eventually calm down. But the Khmer Rouge soldiers entering the city soon displayed their true intentions.

“Year Zero” begins

What followed were attacks on shops, looting, and killings. Soldiers opened fire on people in the streets. Many were slaughtered in these first attacks, and many more were killed as almost three million Cambodians were forced out of the city. Pran, Schanberg, and two other reporters went to a hospital to see how many were dead or injured and were met by a group of armed Khmer Rouge soldiers. Pran talked the soldiers out of killing Schanberg and the others, saving their lives. Schanberg soon returned to the United States, where he looked after Pran’s wife and children in New York, New York.

Pran, meanwhile, was stuck in the new Cambodia, or “Kampuchéa” as the Khmer Rouge had renamed it. He dressed like a peasant and pretended to be a simple villager. It was a wise decision. The Khmer Rouge had orders to execute anyone who wore eyeglasses, perfume, makeup, watches, or other evidence of Western influence. As a symbol of the fact that Cambodia was starting over, 1975 was referred to as “Year Zero.” Pran made his way to a village twenty miles from Siem Reap, where he and other villagers were

forced to harvest rice while receiving political instruction at night. The workers were allowed to eat just one spoonful of rice per day. Pran and the other starving villagers ate anything they could find: bark, snakes, snails, rats, and even the flesh of dead bodies. One night Pran dared to sneak out to try to eat some raw rice. For this the guards ordered his fellow villagers to beat him and leave him outside in a rainstorm.

Nearly two million Cambodians were killed by the Khmer Rouge, but the rest of the world remained silent. Having withdrawn from Southeast Asia, the United States had turned its attention to other issues, and there were few protests of the Khmer Rouge killings. But Sydney Schanberg did not forget. He had received a Pulitzer Prize in 1976 for his Cambodia reporting, and he continued to search for his friend Pran. In January 1979, the Vietnamese invaded Cambodia and finally overthrew the Khmer Rouge. Pran returned to his hometown and found that over fifty members of his family had been killed. Wells were filled with skulls and bones, and the land was covered with graves. Nicknamed “killing fields,” these were distinguished from the nearby ground by the fact that the grass was greenest over them.

Death and life

The Vietnamese made Pran a village administrative chief. When a group of Eastern European reporters visited, he managed to get a message to Schanberg through a member of the East German media. But once the Vietnamese learned that Pran had been a reporter, he decided to escape before they could question him. In July 1979 Pran and

several others set out on a sixty-mile journey past land mines and the forces of the Vietnamese and Khmer Rouge. He arrived at the Thai border and entered a refugee camp there in October. He asked an American relief officer to contact Schanberg, who met him a week later. Schanberg helped Pran move to the United States, where he was reunited with his family. *The New York Times* gave him a job as a reporter, and Pran became a U.S. citizen in 1986.

Pran began to devote his spare time to helping fellow Cambodians who had suffered under the Khmer Rouge. He took several trips back to Cambodia and attempted to bring the Khmer Rouge to justice before the World Court. He and his wife operate the Dith Pran Holocaust Awareness Project, which maintains a photographic record on the Internet to assist Cambodians in finding missing family members. Pran interviewed twenty-nine people who had suffered during the takeover and published the results in 1997 as *Children of Cambodia's Killing Fields: Memoirs by Survivors*. For Pran, the ghosts of Cambodia remain, and the memories are "Still alive to me day and night," he said in an online interview at *The Site*. "It's unbelievable what [the Khmer Rouge] did to the Cambodian people."

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ELVIS PRESLEY

Born: August 8, 1935

Tupelo, Mississippi

Died: August 16, 1977

Memphis, Tennessee

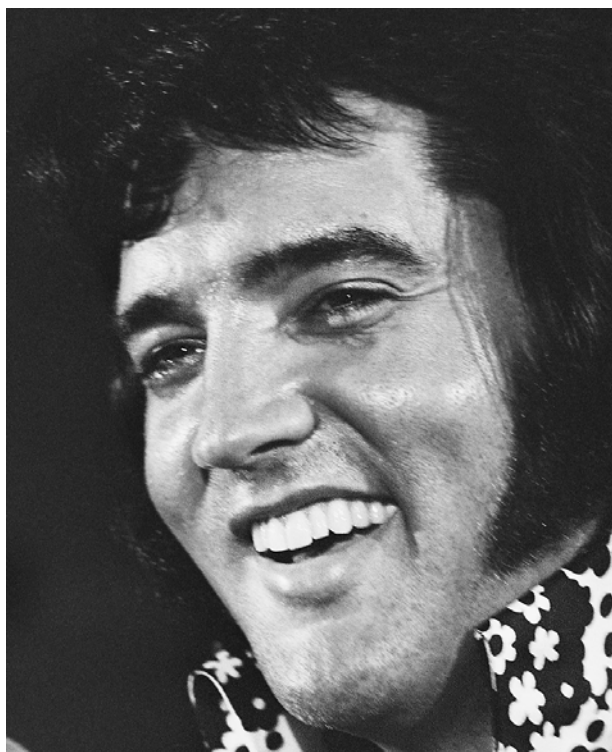
American singer

Elvis Presley, the "King of Rock 'n' Roll," was the leading American singer for two decades and the most popular singer of the entire early rock 'n' roll era.

Young Elvis and Sun Records

Elvis Aron Presley was born in Tupelo, Mississippi, on January 8, 1935, to Gladys and Vernon Presley. His twin brother, Jesse Garon Presley, died shortly after birth. His father worked as a carpenter, farmer, and factory worker to support the family but was not successful in any of his jobs. Raised in a poor and religious environment, Elvis grew especially close to his mother. Elvis's singing ability was discovered when he was an elementary school student in Tupelo, and he first started singing with the choir of his local church. He received his first guitar as a birthday present when he was about twelve and taught himself how to play, although he could not read music. He went on to participate in numerous talent contests in Tupelo and in Memphis, Tennessee, where the family moved when Elvis was thirteen.

In 1953, after Elvis graduated from L. C. Humes High School in Memphis, he began working as a truck driver to pay his way into the Memphis Recording Services studio to



Elvis Presley.

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cut his own records. Less than a year later he recorded "That's All Right Mama" for Sun Records. It became his first commercial release, selling twenty thousand copies.

The birth of rock 'n' roll

Elvis reached the top of the country charts with "Mystery Train" in 1955. His first number one song on the so-called "Hot 100" was "Heartbreak Hotel" (1956), which held that position for seven of the twenty-seven weeks it was on the chart. This song also reached the top of the country charts, and it became a symbol of his ability to combine country singing with rhythm-and-blues, as

well as with the new rage that had grown out of rhythm-and-blues: rock 'n' roll. The rest of the 1950s brought Elvis "living legend" status with records that included "Hound Dog" (1956), "Don't Be Cruel" (1956), "Blue Suede Shoes" (1956), "Love Me Tender" (1956), "All Shook Up" (1957), and "Jailhouse Rock" (1957). He started the 1960s in similar fashion with "It's Now or Never" (1960) and "Are You Lonesome Tonight?" (1960).

Elvis was universally dubbed the "King of Rock 'n' Roll" and led the new music from its beginnings in the 1950s to its peak in the 1960s and on to its permanent place in the music of the 1970s and the 1980s. His impact on American popular culture was tremendous, as he seemed to affect manner of dress, hairstyles, and even behavior. John Lennon (1940–1980) would later note Elvis as one of the most important influences on the Beatles. Even his spinning hip movements became legendary as he continued his rock 'n' roll conquest to the extent of 136 gold records (500,000 sold) and 10 platinum records (1 million sold). Ultimately he had the most records to make the rating charts and was the top recording artist for two straight decades, the 1950s and the 1960s.

Elvis in the movies

Elvis was an instant success in television and movies as well. Millions watched his television appearances on *The Steve Allen Show*, *The Milton Berle Show*, *The Toast of the Town*, and a controversial (open to dispute) appearance on the *The Ed Sullivan Show*, in which cameras were instructed to stay above the hips of "Elvis the Pelvis." He was an even bigger box office smash, beginning with *Love Me Tender* in 1956. Thirty-two movies later, Elvis

had become the top box-office draw for two decades, with ticket sales over \$150 million.

Although few of Elvis's motion pictures were well-received by the critics, they showcased his music and extended his image and fame. His movies included *Jailhouse Rock* (1957), *King Creole* (1958), *G. I. Blues* (1960), *Blue Hawaii* (1961), *Girls! Girls! Girls!* (1962), *Viva Las Vegas* (1964), and *Spinout* (1966). *Wild in the Country* (1961), based on the J. R. Salamanca novel *The Lost Country*, marked his debut in a straight dramatic role.

Controversy

Elvis began a well-publicized stint in the army in 1958. That year, while he was stationed in Fort Hood, Texas, his mother died. The remainder of his military service was spent stationed in Germany, until his discharge (release) in 1960. It was in Germany that he met Priscilla Beaulieu (1945–), his future wife.

Elvis's success in the entertainment industry was accompanied by numerous failures in his personal life. He arranged to have Priscilla, still a teenager, live at his new Memphis home, Graceland Mansion, while she finished high school there. He married her in 1967, and she bore him his only child, Lisa Marie Presley, in 1968. In 1973 he and Priscilla were divorced. During this time, and for his entire career, his personal manager, Tom Parker, controlled his finances. As Elvis's millions grew, so too did the mismanagement of Parker, a known gambler. Parker was later prosecuted for his financial dealings, but he was acquitted (proven innocent). Elvis made an estimated \$4.3 billion in earnings during his lifetime, but he never acquired a concept of financial responsibility. This caused fre-

quent legal battles during and after his lifetime among his management people and several record companies. Elvis had similar luck with his friendships, and frequently surrounded himself with a gang of thugs to shield him from an adoring public.

Beginning of the end

A weight problem became evident in the late 1960s, and in private Elvis became increasingly dependent on drugs, particularly amphetamines and sedatives. His personal doctor, George Nichopoulos, would later be prosecuted, but acquitted, for prescribing and dispensing thousands of pills and narcotics (illegal drugs) to him.

Though Elvis's weight and drug dependency were increasing, Elvis continued a steady flow of concert performances in sold-out arenas well into the 1970s. On August 16, 1977, the day before another concert tour was about to begin, Elvis was found dead in Graceland Mansion by his fiancée, Ginger Alden. The official cause of death was heart disease, although information revealed after his death about his drug dependency created a media event. His death caused worldwide scenes of mourning.

Elvis continues to be celebrated as superstar and legend as much in death as he was in life. Graceland Mansion, which he had purchased in 1957 for \$102,500, is the top tourist attraction in Memphis and has attracted millions of visitors from both America and around the world.

Presley became the first-ever inductee into three music halls of fame when it was announced that he would be inducted into the Gospel Music Hall of Fame on November

27, 2001, in Nashville, Tennessee. He was already a member of the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame and Country Hall of Fame.

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ANDRÉ PREVIN

Born: April 6, 1929

Berlin, Germany

German-born American composer, musician, and music director/conductor

German-born American composer André Previn has received acclaim in every musical venue explored during his exceptional career that has spanned more than six decades.

The gift

Born Andreas Ludwig Priwin in Berlin, Germany, on April 6, 1929, Previn was the

youngest child of a wealthy Jewish family. His father, Jacob, was a respected attorney, as well as an accomplished amateur pianist. Music was an important part of family life, and young André, wanting to participate, asked for lessons. After testing revealed that he had perfect pitch, he was enrolled in the Berlin Conservatory of Music at the age of six. As the threat of World War II (1939–45; a war in which German-led forces were crushed by those led by Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and, later, the United States) loomed, life under Nazi (the National Socialist German Workers' Party, which, under the control of Adolf Hitler [1889–1945], took control of Germany in 1933) rule became increasingly difficult, and in 1938 the family fled to Paris, France. Previn studied at the Paris Conservatory of Music until the family moved to the United States.

Life in Los Angeles, California, was different from life in Berlin and Paris in almost every way possible—from the climate and architecture to the language spoken and career opportunities available. Upon arrival to the United States, none of the family spoke English, including Previn's father, which made practicing law impossible. To make ends meet, he gave music lessons at home—yet nothing stood in the way of young Previn's musical education. He studied piano, theory, and composition from the best instructors available, Joseph Achron and Mario Castelnuovo-Tedesco.

Previn became an American citizen at the age of fourteen, about the same time he became obsessed by the most American of all musical forms—jazz. Previn began splitting time between his classical studies and jazz, and word of his talent spread. As a teenager

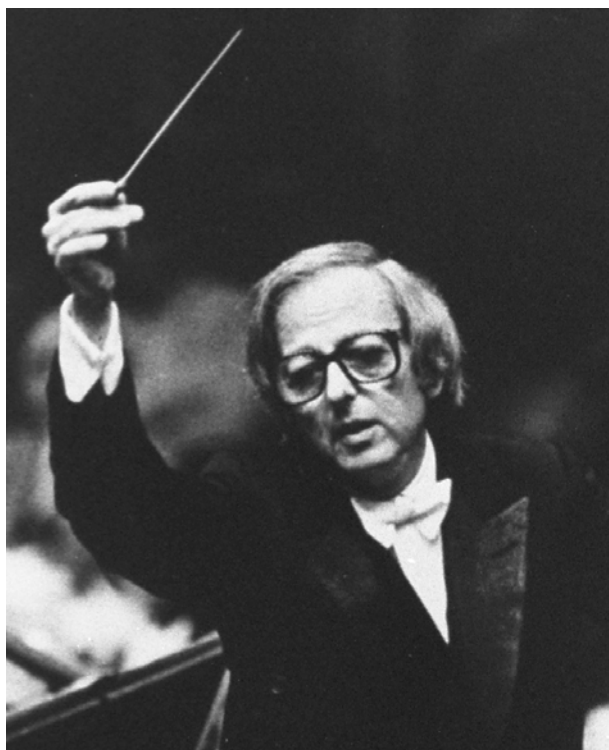
Previn practiced piano up to six hours a day. Eager to help his family financially, he quickly followed up when he heard that the movie studio Metro-Goldwyn Mayer (MGM) needed someone to compose a jazz arrangement (a musical score). This led to writing more arrangements, at first sporadically and then more regularly, several times a week after school. Seduced by Hollywood's glamour, he signed a contract with MGM when he turned eighteen. He also made his first recording on the Sunset label while still in his teens.

Virtuoso

Previn's career flourished in the late 1950s and early 1960s with musical hits that he adapted from the theatrical stage for films, and original scores he composed and conducted for other musicals and dramas. He became musical director at MGM, was nominated for sixteen Academy Awards, and won four.

Another part of Previn's musical talent was calling, however. According to his own account in *No Minor Chords, My Days in Hollywood*, he longed to be part of the inner circle of what he regarded as the legitimate world of classical music. Hollywood was not the place to write and perform serious music. In 1965 he began recording with the London Symphony Orchestra, and from 1967 to 1970, he was conductor-in-chief of the Houston Symphony Orchestra.

In 1969, while Previn was married to his second wife Dory Langdon, he began to be seen with actress Mia Farrow, ex-wife of popular singer Frank Sinatra (1915–1998). She gave birth to their twin sons, Matthew and Sascha in early 1970. The scandal resulted in Previn leaving the Houston Symphony Orchestra. Langdon and Previn divorced,



André Previn.

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and he married Farrow shortly thereafter. Due to career conflicts, they divorced in the late 1970s.

The Maestro

Life changed gradually until Previn accepted the appointment of principal conductor with the London Symphony Orchestra in 1969. In London he became a popular personality, appearing frequently on television to talk about music. He also toured throughout Europe and the United States with the London Symphony, and became especially well known for his interpretations of British and Russian symphonic works.

Throughout Previn's active conducting career—with the Pittsburgh Symphony Orchestra (1976–1984), the Los Angeles Philharmonic (1985–1989), and the Royal Philharmonic (music director, 1985–1988; principal conductor, 1988–1991), and as Conductor Laureate of the London Symphony (since 1993)—he continued to compose. Compositions included a *Symphony for Strings*; "Four Outings," for brass quintet; a piano concerto, commissioned by Vladimir Ashkenzy; a cello sonata, written for Yo-Yo Ma; a song cycle, written for Dame Janet Baker; a music drama, *Every Good Boy Deserves Favour*, written in collaboration with playwright Tom Stoppard; and an opera based on Tennessee Williams's (1911–1983) *A Streetcar Named Desire*, commissioned by the San Francisco Opera in 1998.

In 1982 Previn married Heather Hales and they had one child. In the early 1990s he returned to one of his first loves—jazz. He resumed recording, and formed the Andre Previn Jazz Trio, which toured Japan, North America, and Europe in 1992 and 1993. In 1998 Previn was honored with an award for his career as a conductor and composer at the Kennedy Center Honors ceremony in Washington, D.C.

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LEONTYNE PRICE

Born: February 10, 1927

Laurel, Mississippi

African American opera singer

Leontyne Price was a prima donna soprano (the lead female singer in an opera) and considered in most many circles as one of the finest opera singers of the twentieth century.

Early life and career

Mary Leontyne Price was born in Laurel, Mississippi, on February 10, 1927. Her parents were especially encouraging in developing their daughter's love of music. As a young girl, Price played piano and sang in her church choir. Nine-year-old Price was especially influenced when she saw American opera singer Marian Anderson (1897–1993) perform in Jackson, Mississippi. She claims this experience as the moment she knew she wanted to be an opera singer.

Educated in public schools in Laurel, Price then attended Central State College in Wilberforce, Ohio, where she received her bachelor of arts degree in 1948. Her particular interest was singing in the glee club at Central State, where she displayed an abundance of musical talent, and she decided to make a career of singing.

After Central State College, Price entered New York's Juilliard School of Music where she studied until 1952. At the same time she took private lessons under Florence Page Kimball. Price was the first African American singer to gain international star-

dom in opera, an art form previously reserved for the upper-class white society. Her success signified not only a monumental stride for her own generation, but for those that came before and after her.

Rising star

While still at Juilliard, Price exhibited her soprano (highest operatic voice) ability at various concerts and in her appearance as Mistress Ford in Giuseppe Verdi's (1813–1901) *Falstaff*. Virgil Thomson took notice of her performance and provided her with her Broadway stage debut in the Broadway revival of his *Four Saints in Three Acts*. Her ability then earned her the role of Bess in George Gershwin's (1898–1937) *Porgy and Bess* in a touring company that met with great successes in London, England; Paris, France; Berlin, Germany; and Moscow, Russia. She also played Bess when the company performed *Porgy and Bess* on Broadway. During the tour she married William Warfield, who sang the role of Porgy. Other composers took note of Price's ability, and in 1953 she sang premieres of works by Henri Sauget, Lou Harrison, John La Montaine, and Igor Stravinsky (188–1971), among others.

Price received overwhelming critical praise for her 1954 Town Hall concert in New York City and followed that with her first performance in grand opera (an opera where all of the text is sung), in 1955, as Floria in Giacomo Puccini's (1858–1924) *Tosca* on network television with the National Broadcasting Company (NBC) Opera. She made her first opera stage appearance in 1957 as Madame Lidoine in Francis Poulenc's *Dialogues of the Carmelites* with the San Francisco Opera Company. Price also toured Italy



Leontyne Price.

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successfully that year and sang *Aida* at La Scala in Milan. She continued to sing with the San Francisco Opera, as well as with the Lyric Opera of Chicago and other major opera houses in North America.

In 1960 Price portrayed Donna Anna in *Don Giovanni* at the Salzburg Festival in Austria. On January 27, 1961, she made her debut in New York's famous Metropolitan Opera as Leonora in *Il Trovatore*, which earned her thunderous applause and moved opera critics to regard her as one of the greats of the twentieth century. She also sang the title role at the Metropolitan Opera in *Madame Butterfly* and the role of Minnie in *La*

Franciulla del West (The Girl of the Golden West). Price appeared in 118 Metropolitan productions between 1961 and 1969. In 1965 she was awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom by President Lyndon Johnson (1908–1973), who said, “Her singing has brought light to her land.”

One of Price’s greatest triumphs was her creation of the role of Cleopatra in Samuel Barber’s *Antony and Cleopatra*. Its premiere opened the 1966 Metropolitan Opera season as well as the beautiful new Metropolitan Opera House in Lincoln Center. Her best and favorite performances were as Verdi heroines Elvira in *Ernani*, Leonora in *Il Trovatore*, Amelia in *The Masked Ball*, and especially as Aida.

Later career

Price made other worldwide tours that included Australia and Argentina’s Teatro Colon in Buenos Aires in 1969. In the 1970s Price drastically cut the number of opera appearances, preferring to focus instead on her first love, recitals (solo performances), in which she enjoyed the challenge of creating several characters on stage in succession. In 1985, Price gave her final performance at New York’s Lincoln Center in the title role of Verdi’s *Aida*. She was fifty-seven years old.

Price made numerous recordings of music outside of opera and was awarded honorary degrees from Dartmouth College, Howard University, and Fordham University, among others. Music critics universally lavished praise on her voice and her portrayals. Divorced from Warfield in 1972, she lives in her homes in Rome, Italy, and New York.

In October of 2001, Price briefly came out of retirement to give her rendition of

“America the Beautiful” to a capacity crowd at Carnegie Hall. The performance opened a special ceremony dedicated to the memory of those who died in the terrorists attacks of September 11, 2001, when thousands died in New York City after two planes crashed into the World Trade Center.

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E. ANNIE PROULX

Born: August 22, 1935

Norwich, Connecticut

American writer

E. Annie Proulx won the 1993 PEN/Faulkner Award for her novel *Postcards* and a Pulitzer Prize in 1994 for her next novel, *The Shipping News*.

Early life and education

Edna Annie Proulx was born on August 22, 1935, in Norwich, Connecticut, the

first of George Napoleon Proulx and Lois Nelly Gill Proulx's five children. Proulx's father was the vice president of a textile company. His family had come to the United States from Quebec, Canada. The family often moved to different places in New England and North Carolina because of her father's job. Her mother, a painter, encouraged her to notice everything around her. She was taught to observe the activities of ants and to notice every detail, the feeling of fabrics, and the unique parts of people's faces.

Proulx attended Colby College in Maine briefly in the 1950s but left to work different jobs, including waiting tables and working at the post office. She received a bachelor's degree in history from the University of Vermont in 1969 and a master's degree from Sir George Williams University in Montreal, Canada, in 1973. She then began working toward her Ph.D. (an advanced degree beyond a master's degree), but in 1975 she abandoned the idea, thinking she would not be able to find a teaching job. Proulx told *Contemporary Authors* that she was "wild" during those years. Her third marriage broke up at around the same time. As a result, Proulx became a single parent to her three sons.

Writing career

In tiny towns in Vermont, Proulx spent her time fishing, hunting, and canoeing, and began working as a freelance (not under contract) journalist. She wrote articles for magazines on many different topics. Her work appeared in publications such as *Country Journal*, *Organic Gardening*, and *Yankee*. In the early 1980s Proulx produced a series of



E. Annie Proulx.

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"how-to" books, including *Sweet & Hard Cider: Making It, Using It, and Enjoying It*; *The Fine Art of Salad Gardening*; and *Plan and Make Your Own Fences and Gates, Walkways, Walls and Drives*. She also created her own newspaper, the *Vershire Behind the Times*, which existed from 1984 to 1986. She also found time to average two short stories a year, nearly all of which were published.

In 1983 Proulx's career as a fiction writer was boosted by a notice in *Best American Short Stories*, an honor that was repeated in 1987. Proulx published her first book, *Heart Songs and Other Stories*, in 1988.

Against the beautiful backdrop of the New England countryside, her stories involve the struggles of people trying to cope with their complicated lives. Proulx illustrates the stories with sharp descriptions, such as a man who eats a fish “as he would a slice of watermelon” or a woman who is as “thin as a folded dollar bill, her hand as narrow and cold as a trout.”

Successful novels

Editors that worked with Proulx on her short stories suggested that she try to write a novel. She came up with *Postcards* (1992), the story of a man from New England who flees the family farm after accidentally killing his bride-to-be. The passages involving the man’s wanderings across the country come from Proulx’s own trip across America while doing research. The book was a professional and personal success. Proulx became the first woman to receive the PEN/Faulkner Award for fiction, which came with a fifteen thousand dollar bonus.

The very next year, Proulx capped this success by writing *The Shipping News*. A dark but comic tale set in Newfoundland, it is the story of an unlucky newspaper reporter named Quoye. It is packed with details, all drawn in a vibrant (full of life) lively style. The book resulted in a steady stream of awards: first, the Heartland Prize from the *Chicago Tribune*, followed by the Irish Times International Award, and the National Book Award. These honors were all topped by the 1994 Pulitzer Prize for fiction.

Later works

After becoming famous, Proulx found that she had less time to research and write.

In 1994 she had short stories published in *Atlantic Monthly* and *Esquire*. She bought a second home in Newfoundland, and by the spring of 1995 she had moved to Wyoming. In researching her next novel, Proulx became an expert on accordion music. She studied not how to play the instrument, but how to take one apart and then rebuild it. *Accordion Crimes*, released in 1996, is about the music of immigrants and particularly about different kinds of accordion music.

In 1999 Proulx released *Close Range: Wyoming Stories*, which won a book award from *The New Yorker* for best work of fiction. In 2001 *The Shipping News* was released as a film.

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MARCEL PROUST

Born: July 10, 1871

Auteuil, France

Died: November 18, 1922

Paris, France

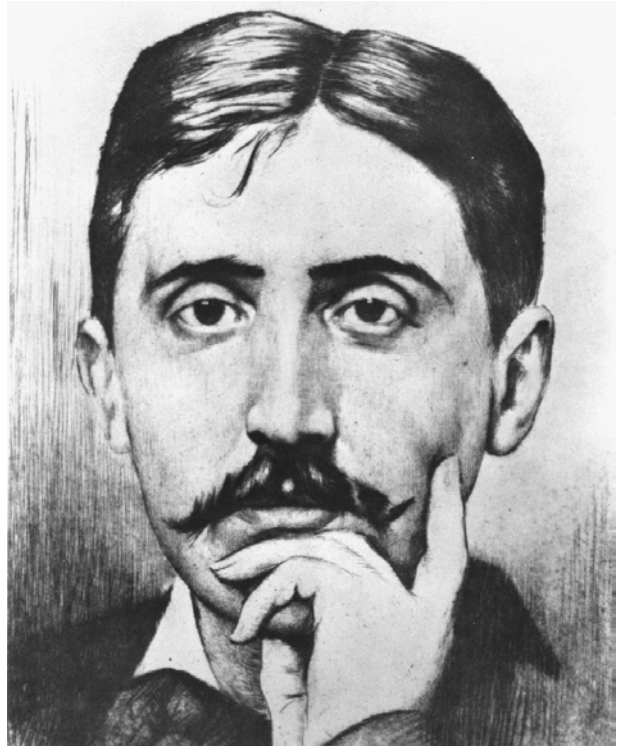
French author

French novelist Marcel Proust was one of the greatest writers of the twentieth century. His books abandoned plot

and dramatic action in favor of the narrator's descriptions of his experiences in the world.

Early years and education

Marcel Proust was born on July 10, 1871, in Auteuil, a suburb of Paris, France. His parents, Dr. Adrien Proust and Jeanne Weil, were wealthy. Proust was a nervous and frail child. When he was nine years old, his first attack of asthma (a breathing disorder) nearly killed him. In 1882 Proust enrolled in the Lycée Condorcet. Only during his last two years of study there did he distinguish himself as a student. After a year of military service, Proust studied law and then philosophy (the study of the world and man's place in it). Proust became known as a brilliant conversationalist with the ability to mimic others, although some considered him a snob and social climber.



Marcel Proust.

First works

In 1892 and 1893 Proust wrote criticism, sketches, and short stories for the journal *Le Banquet* and to *La Revue blanche*. His first work, *Les Plaisirs et les jours* (Pleasures and Days), a collection of short stories and short verse descriptions of artists and musicians, was published in 1896. Proust had made an attempt at a major work in 1895, but he was unsure of himself and abandoned it in 1899. It appeared in 1952 under the title of *Jean Santeuil*; from thousands of pages, Bernard de Fallois had organized the novel according to a sketchy plan he found among them. Parts of the novel make little sense, and many passages are from Proust's other works. Some, however, are beautifully written. *Jean Santeuil* is the biography of a made-up character who struggles to follow his artistic calling.

After abandoning *Jean Santeuil*, Proust returned to his studies, reading widely in other literatures. During 1899 he became interested in the works of the English critic John Ruskin (1819–1900), and after Ruskin's death the next year, Proust published an article that established him as a Ruskin scholar. Proust wrote several more articles on Ruskin, and with the help of an English-speaking friend, Marie Nordlinger, and his mother, Proust translated into French Ruskin's *The Bible of Amiens* (1904) and *Sesame and Lilies* (1906). Reading Ruskin's ideas on art helped him form his own ideas and move beyond the problems of *Jean Santeuil*.

In 1903 Proust's father died. The death of his mother two years later forced Proust into a sanatorium (an institution for rest and recovery), but he stayed less than two months. He emerged once again into society and into print after two years with a series of articles published in *Le Figaro* during 1907 and 1908. By November 1908 Proust was planning his *Contre Sainte-Beuve* (published in 1954; On Art and Literature). He finished it during the summer of 1909 and immediately started work on his great novel.

Remembrance of Things Past

Although Proust had by 1909 gathered most of the material that became *À la recherche du temps perdu* (Remembrance of Things Past), he still felt unable to structure the material. In January 1909 the combination of flavors in a cup of tea and toast brought him sensations that reminded him of his youth in his grandfather's garden. These feelings revealed the hidden self that Proust had spoken of in *Contre Sainte-Beuve*, and he felt that the process of artistic rebirth was the theme his novel required. In *À la recherche du temps perdu* Proust was mainly concerned with describing not real life but his narrator Marcel's view of it. Marcel traces his growth through a number of remembered experiences and realizes that these experiences reflect his inner life more truly than does his outer life.

Proust began his novel in 1909 and worked on it until his death. In 1913 he found a publisher who would produce, at the author's expense, the first of three projected volumes *Du Côté de chez Swann* (Swann's Way). French writer André Gide (1869–1951) in 1916 obtained the rights to publish the rest of the volumes. *À l'ombre des jeunes filles en*

fleur (Within a Budding Grove), originally a chapter title, appeared in 1918 as the second volume and won the Goncourt Prize. As other volumes appeared, Proust expanded his material, adding long sections just before publication. Feeling his end approaching, Proust finished drafting his novel and began revising and correcting proofs. On November 18, 1922, Proust died of bronchitis and pneumonia (diseases of the lungs) contracted after a series of asthma attacks. The final volumes of his novel appeared under the direction of his brother Robert.

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PTOLEMY I

Born: c. 366 B.C.E.

Macedonia

Died: 283 B.C.E.

Macedonian military leader, general, and ruler

Ptolemy I (c. 366–283 B.C.E.) was a Macedonian general under Alexander the Great (356–323 B.C.E.) and

founder of the Ptolemaic dynasty of Egypt, a family of fifteen kings—all of whom were named Ptolemy—who reigned over Egypt for more than three hundred years.

Early life

Born in the upper Macedonian region of Eordaia to the Macedonian nobleman Lagos and Arsinoë, Ptolemy grew up in the royal court at Pella. Little is known about Ptolemy's childhood. In 343 B.C.E. he joined Alexander at Mieza where he studied for three years with the Greek philosopher Aristotle (384–322 B.C.E.).

Ptolemy returned to Pella with Alexander by 340 B.C.E. and supported his younger friend's quarrel with his father, Philip, the King of Macedonia. In 337 B.C.E. Alexander left Macedonia with his mother Olympias, Ptolemy, and his close friends for Epirus and Illyria but soon returned to Macedonia. Alexander's relationship with Philip remained sour, and the king forced Ptolemy from the court because he considered him a dangerous adviser to his son.

Alexander's adviser and general

In 336 B.C.E. when Philip was assassinated by a group of nobles, Ptolemy returned to the court and supported Alexander's claim to the throne. Alexander, in turn, appointed Ptolemy companion, lifeguard, and seneschal, an office in charge of the household and servants. Ptolemy accompanied Alexander on his military campaigns to regions in the Danube in 336 B.C.E. and to crush rebellion in Corinth and to destroy Thebes in 335 B.C.E.

Ptolemy stood beside Alexander, helping the young king expand his empire. Ptolemy encouraged and aided Alexander's invasion of



Ptolemy I.

Asia Minor to free the eastern Greeks from the Persian Empire of Darius III (died 330 B.C.E.) and to invade Syria and conquer Persia. Ptolemy fought at Issos in 333 B.C.E. and, riding beside Alexander, pursued Darius into the hills. He then accompanied Alexander through Phoenicia and in the conquering of Tyre in 332 B.C.E. and marched through Jerusalem to Egypt. In Egypt, Ptolemy aided Alexander's peaceful conquest of the country and the founding of the city of Alexandria, and probably accompanied his king to the temple of Zeus Ammon, in Siwa. Ptolemy quickly realized the immense value of Egypt, and he developed keen interests in the region.

From Egypt, Ptolemy accompanied Alexander to northern Mesopotamia for the third and final major conflict with Darius's armies, at Gaugamela in 331 B.C.E. During the next six years Ptolemy campaigned with Alexander through western India and along the Indus Valley. Ptolemy recognized Alexander's claim to the Persian throne without hesitation and revealed to Alexander the plot of the royal pages (messengers) to assassinate him. In India, Ptolemy fought beside Alexander and in one battle saved his king's life.

At Susa in 324 B.C.E., when Alexander asked his companions to marry Persians, Ptolemy agreed and married Artacama, the daughter of the Persian nobleman Artabazos. But after Alexander's death Ptolemy quickly divorced her.

Ruler of Egypt

With Alexander's death in Babylon on June 13, 323 B.C.E., Ptolemy's political and military ambitions were freed. He quickly recognized the problems of co-rulership with Alexander's half brother Arrhidaeios—who suffered from mental and physical disabilities—and his son Alexander, who was born shortly after Alexander the Great's death. Ptolemy immediately claimed Egypt as his satrapy, meaning that he became governor of the province. Ptolemy also stood strongly opposed to Perdikkas, to whom Alexander had given his signet ring (a ring engraved with a seal) and the regency (governing power) of the empire.

Ptolemy brought Alexander's body for burial to Memphis in Egypt, though Alexander had wished to be buried at Siwa. Ptolemy built an altar there for Alexander but kept the body at Memphis until a suitable mau-

soleum, or tomb, could be built in Ptolemy's new Egyptian capital, Alexandria.

Perdikkas's regency rapidly fell to violent warfare among Ptolemy, Lysimachos who held Thrace, Antigonus (382–301 B.C.E.) the “One-Eyed” in Greater Phrygia, and Seleucus who desired power in Syria. Until 281 B.C.E. the “successors” fought bitterly. In 306 B.C.E. Antigonus assumed the title of king and claimed all of Alexander's empire. In opposition, Ptolemy declared Egypt's independence, proclaimed himself king of Egypt, and established a powerful dynasty (a line of rulers from the same family) that would last until Cleopatra's (51–30 B.C.E.) suicide in 30 B.C.E.

After Ptolemy I divorced Artacama, he married the Macedonian noblewoman Eurydice. Unhappy with this political alliance, Ptolemy put her aside, and by 317 B.C.E. had married his widowed half-sister and lover, Berenice. The girl, a niece of Eurydice, was almost twenty-seven years younger than Ptolemy. Berenice gave birth to two children, Arsinoë (II) and Ptolemy (II).

Maintaining rule

In Upper Egypt, Ptolemy I founded the city Ptolemais. As satrap of Egypt, he clashed violently with Cleomenes of Naucrates, whom Alexander in 332 B.C.E. had appointed financial manager of Egypt and chief of the eastern delta (lands east of the Nile River) and had entrusted with the completion of Alexandria. Cleomenes, however, had assumed the satrapship, but Alexander had relieved him from duty. In 321 B.C.E. Ptolemy charged Cleomenes with embezzlement of funds (stealing money) and executed him, thereby removing a political rival.

Between 306 B.C.E. and 286 B.C.E. Ptolemy concentrated on the development of his empire. He gained control of Cyrene and conquered Palestine, coastal Syria, and Cyprus. In 286 B.C.E. he became protector of the southern Cycladic islands and their center at Delos. Throughout his empire he established the well-constructed Ptolemaic administration; he built the legal and military organizations and the military settlements, raised foreign armies, and raised native money for the military. Using Alexander's daily journal and other official materials, Ptolemy wrote an excellent history of Alexander and his campaigns. Greek historian Arrian's *Anabasis* (second century C.E.) preserved much of Ptolemy's study.

In 285 B.C.E. Ptolemy stepped down from his throne in favor of his twenty-two-year-old son, Ptolemy II. Two years later Ptolemy I died and was deified (given god-like status) by the young king in 279 B.C.E. and given the title Theos Soter, "God and Savior."

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JOSEPH PULITZER

Born: April 10, 1847

Mako, Hungary

Died: October 29, 1911

Charleston, South Carolina

Hungarian-born American publisher and editor

Joseph Pulitzer, Hungarian-born editor and publisher, was important in the development of the modern newspaper in the United States.

Early years

Joseph Pulitzer was born in Mako, Hungary, on April 10, 1847, the son of Philip Pulitzer, a well-to-do grain dealer, and Louise Berger. Pulitzer was educated by private tutors, from whom he learned to speak German and French. Thin, with poor vision and weak lungs, he tried to enlist in the army in Europe but was turned down. In 1864 he left Hungary for the United States and became a soldier in the Union army during the Civil War (1861–65), when Northern and Southern American states fought mainly over the issue of slavery. After the war, the tall, red-bearded youth had no job and settled in St. Louis, Missouri, where there was a large German population. Pulitzer worked as a waiter, taxi driver, and a caretaker of mules before getting a job as a reporter on a newspaper called the *Westliche Post*.

A short time after joining the *Post*, Pulitzer was nominated (his name was put forward for consideration) for the state legislature by the Republican Party. His campaign was considered a long shot because he was nominated in a Democratic district. Pulitzer, however, ran seriously and won. In the legislature he fought graft (illegal gain) and corruption (improper conduct by elected officials). In one wild dispute he shot a man in the leg for saying that he had written an untrue story in the newspaper. Pulitzer escaped punishment with a fine that his friends paid.



Joseph Pulitzer.

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Newspaper acquisitions

Pulitzer was hard-working and ambitious. He bought the *St. Louis Post* for about three thousand dollars in 1872. He also bought a German paper and sold it at a twenty thousand dollar profit. These profits helped pay for his political activities and for law school. In 1876 Pulitzer was allowed to practice law in Missouri. He started a law practice, but he gave it up in 1878 after purchasing the troubled *St. Louis Dispatch* at a sheriff's sale for twenty-seven hundred dollars and combining it with the *Post*. Aided by his brilliant editor in chief, John A. Cockerill,

Pulitzer launched crusades against lotteries, gambling, and tax dodging; led drives to have streets cleaned and repaired; and sought to make St. Louis more civic-minded. The *Post-Dispatch* became a success.

In 1883 Pulitzer, then thirty-six, purchased the *New York World* for \$346,000 from businessman Jay Gould (1836–1892), who was losing forty thousand dollars a year on the paper. Pulitzer made the down payment (a portion of the total price paid at the beginning of a loan) from *Post-Dispatch* profits and made all later payments out of profits from the *World*. Even as Pulitzer's eyes began to fail in the 1880s (he went blind in 1889), he carried on a battle for readers with William Randolph Hearst (1863–1951), publisher of the *New York Journal*. In New York, New York, he promised that the *World* would “expose all fraud and sham, fight all public evils and abuses” and “battle for the people with earnest sincerity.” He concentrated on human-interest stories, scandal (behavior that causes loss of faith in a person), and sensational material. Pulitzer's *World* was a strong supporter of the common man. It often supported unions during strikes.

Later life

Pulitzer in the early part of his career opposed large headlines and art. Later, as his fight with Hearst increased in the 1890s, the two giants went to ever larger headline type and more fantastic art and engaged in questionable practices until Pulitzer decided things had gone too far and cut back. Pulitzer defended his methods, though, saying that people had to know about crime in order to fight it. He once told a critic, “I want to talk to a nation, not a select committee.”

Pulitzer died aboard his yacht in the harbor at Charleston, South Carolina, on October 29, 1911. In his will he provided two million dollars for the establishment of a school of journalism at Columbia University in New York City. Also, by the terms of his will, the prizes bearing his name were established in 1915. Pulitzer Prizes are awarded every year to honor achievements in journalism, literature, and music.

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GEORGE PULLMAN

Born: March 3, 1831

Brocton, New York

Died: October 19, 1897

Chicago, Illinois

American industrialist

George Pullman was an American industrial businessman who developed the railroad sleeping car and

built a big business with it. He was one of the last industrialists (someone who owns and operates a large-scale business) to operate a company town.

Childhood and early career

George Mortimer Pullman was born on March 3, 1831, in Brocton, New York, but his parents soon moved to Portland, New York. After attending public schools, his formal education ended at the age of fourteen, shortly after the death of his father. Pullman then went to work in a general store and became the main source of income for his family. In 1848 Pullman joined his older brother in Albion, New York, where he worked as a cabinetmaker.

In 1853 Pullman became a general contractor and helped move several buildings that stood in the way of a project to widen the Erie Canal. (The Erie Canal is a key waterway in Lake Erie that connects the Great Lakes and opened the region to shipping.) Upon completion of that work in 1855 he moved to Chicago, where he entered the business of raising buildings onto higher foundations to avoid flooding—a problem caused by much of Chicago's land area being only a few feet above the level of Lake Michigan.

Railroads cars

The idea of a sleeping car for railroads was not new, and various efforts had been made to construct and operate such cars before Pullman joined the field. He formed a partnership with Benjamin Field, who had the rights to operate “sleepers” on the Chicago and Alton and the Galena and Union railroads. Pullman remodeled two



George Pullman.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

passenger cars into sleepers, using the structure of an upper bed hinged to the side of the car and supported by two jointed arms. Business grew slowly but steadily until the Civil War (1861–65), when Confederate (the South) and Union (the North) forces clashed over several issues, mainly secession, or the Confederacy's desire to leave the Union. In 1862 Pullman went to the Colorado gold fields, where he operated a trading store and in his spare time continued to develop his sleeping car.

Returning to Chicago, Pullman and Field constructed the "Pioneer" sleeping car, which became a classic in rail history. Its

first trip brought Abraham Lincoln's (1809–1865) widow from Washington, to Springfield, Illinois, shortly after the president's assassination. Other railroads began to use the Pullman car. In 1867, the year of Pullman's marriage, the Illinois legislature (governing body) began to regularly use the Pullman Palace Car Company, which eventually became the world's largest such building concern. At first, Pullman contracted for his cars (hired other companies to build them); in 1870 he began construction in Detroit, Michigan, although the headquarters remained in Chicago. The Pullman company always rented sleeping cars; it never sold them.

By 1880 Pullman owned the rights to land in the Calumet region of Chicago, where he constructed a new factory and a company town—a town where the chief employment for the town's residents comes from one company. Deeply disturbed by depressing city conditions, he believed his town could be a model of efficiency and healthfulness, though it was planned to return a 6 percent profit. The town cost over \$5 million to build, and a serious strike in 1894 marked the beginning of the separation of factory and town. Pullman died in Chicago on October 19, 1897.

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ALEKSANDR PUSHKIN

Born: May 26, 1799

Moscow, Russia

Died: January 29, 1837

St. Petersburg, Russia

Russian author

Aleksandr Pushkin is ranked as one of Russia's greatest poets. He not only brought Russian poetry to its highest excellence, but also had a great influence on all Russian literature in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Early years

Aleksandr Sergeevich Pushkin was born to Sergei and Nadezhda Pushkin on May 26, 1799. On his father's side he was a descendant of Russian nobility. On his mother's side he was related to an African lord. But by the time Aleksandr was born, the family had gradually lost most of their wealth and influence, and they were lowered to the position of minor nobility. Aleksandr's family life was far from ideal. His father was domineering and easily irritated, and his mother often left the young child alone in pursuit of her social ambitions.

Between 1811 and 1817 Pushkin attended a special school for privileged children of the nobility. Pushkin was not a very good student in most subjects, but he performed brilliantly in French and Russian literature.

Early works, 1814–1820

After finishing school, Pushkin led a wild and undisciplined life. He wrote about 130 poems between 1814 and 1817, while still at school. Most of his works written between 1817 and 1820 were not published because his topics were considered inappropriate.

In 1820 Pushkin completed his first narrative poem, *Ruslan and Ludmilla*. It is a romance composed of fantastic adventures but told with the humor of the previous century. However, even before *Ruslan and Ludmilla* was published in June 1820, Pushkin was exiled to the south of Russia because of the political humor he had expressed in his earlier poems. Pushkin left St. Petersburg on May 6, and he would not return for more than six years.

South of Russia

Pushkin spent the years from 1820 to 1823 in various places in the southern part of Russia, including the Caucasus and in the Crimea. He was happy there at first, but later, he felt bored by the life in small towns and took up again a life of gambling and drinking. He was always short of money. He worked as a civil servant (government worker), but did not make much money and his family refused to support him.

Pushkin began to earn money with his poetic works, but not enough to keep up with



Aleksandr Pushkin.

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his wealthy friends. In 1823 he was transferred to Odessa, a larger city more to his liking. Then he moved to Mikhailovskoye, an estate owned by his family.

Mikhailovskoye, 1824–1826

When Pushkin arrived at Mikhailovskoye, his relations with his parents were not good. His father was angry at him. The family left the estate about mid-November, and Pushkin found himself alone with the family nurse. He lived alone for much of the next two years, occasionally visiting a neighboring town and infrequently entertaining old Petersburg friends. At this time the nurse told Pushkin

many folk tales, and it is believed that she gave him a feeling for folk life that showed itself in many of his poems.

Pushkin's two years at Mikhailovskoye were extremely rich in poetic output. Among other works, he wrote the first three chapters of *Eugene Onegin*, and composed the tragedy *Boris Godunov*. In addition, he composed many important lyrics (poetic dramas set to music) and a humorous tale in verse entitled *Count Nulin*.

His maturity

Pushkin was eventually forgiven by the new czar (Russian ruler), Nicholas I (1796–1855). The czar promised Pushkin that all of his works would be censored (edited for approval) by the czar himself. Pushkin promised to publish nothing that would harm the government. After some time this type of censorship became a burden for Pushkin.

Pushkin continued to live a wild life for awhile, but wanted to settle down. He proposed to Nathalie Goncharova in 1830. He asked his future in-laws for money and convinced them to provide him with land and a house. He continued to work on *Eugene Onegin*, wrote a number of excellent lyrics, and worked on, but did not finish a novel.

Eugene Onegin was begun in 1824 and finished in August 1831. This is a novel in verse (poetry) and most regard it as Pushkin's most famous work. It is a "novel" about life at that time, constructed in order to permit digressions (the moving away from the main subject in literary works) and a variety of incidents and tones. The heart of the tale concerns the life of Eugene Onegin, a bored

nobleman who rejects the advances of a young girl, Tatiana. He meets her later, when she is greatly changed and now sophisticated. He falls in love with her. He is in turn rejected by her because, although she loves him, she is married.

Marriage, duel, and death

After 1830 Pushkin wrote less and less poetry. He married Nathalie Goncharova in 1831. She bore him three children, but the couple were not happy together. His new wife had many other admirers. He challenged one of her admirers to a duel that took place on January 26, 1837. Pushkin was wounded and died on January 29. There was great mourning at his death.

Many of Pushkin's works provided the basis for operas by Russian composers. They include *Ruslan and Ludmilla* by Mikhail Glinka (1804–1857), *Eugene Onegin* and *The Queen of Spades* by Peter Ilyich Tchaikovsky (1840–1893), *Boris Godunov* by Modest Mussorgsky (1839–1881), and *The Golden Cockerel* by Nicolai Rimsky-Korsakov (1844–1908).

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VLADIMIR PUTIN

Born: October 1, 1952

Leningrad, Russia

Russian president

When Vladimir Putin was appointed prime minister of Russia, very little was known about his background. This former Soviet intelligence agent entered politics in the early 1990s and rose rapidly. By August of 1999, ailing President Boris Yeltsin (1931–) appointed him prime minister. When Yeltsin stepped down in December of 1999, Putin became the acting president of Russia, and he was elected president to serve a full term on March 26, 2000.

Early life and education

Vladimir Putin was born on October 1, 1952, in Leningrad (now St. Petersburg), Russia. An only child, his father was a foreman in a metal factory and his mother was a homemaker. Putin lived with his parents in an apartment with two other families. Though religion was not permitted in the Soviet Union, the former country which was made up of Russia and other smaller states, his mother secretly had him baptized as an Orthodox Christian.

Though a small child, Putin could hold



Vladimir Putin.

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his own in fights thanks to martial arts classes. By the age of sixteen he was a top-ranked expert at sambo, a Russian combination of judo and wrestling. By the time he was a teenager Putin had begun to display the ambition that he later became known for, and he attended a respected high school, School 281, which only accepted students with near-perfect grades. The institution was the only one in Russia to stress chemistry, which was Putin's interest. However, he soon moved toward liberal arts and biology. Putin played handball and worked at the school radio station, where he played music by the Beatles and other Western rock bands. Fascinated

with spy movies as a teen, he aspired to work for the KGB, the Russian secret service.

Work in the KGB

At Leningrad State University, Putin graduated from the law department in 1975 but instead of entering the law field right out of school, Putin landed a job with the KGB, the only one in his class of one hundred to be chosen. The branch he was assigned to was responsible for recruiting foreigners who would work to gather information for KGB intelligence.

In the early 1980s Putin met and married his wife, Lyudmila, a former teacher of French and English. In 1985 the KGB sent him to Dresden, East Germany, where he lived undercover as Mr. Adamov, the director of the Soviet-German House of Friendship, a social and cultural club. Putin appeared to genuinely enjoy spending time with Germans, unlike many other KGB agents, and respected the German culture.

Around the time Putin went to East Germany, Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev (1931–) was beginning to introduce economic and social reforms (improvements). Putin was apparently a firm believer in the changes. In 1989 the Berlin Wall, which stood for nearly forty years separating East from West Germany, was torn down and the two united. Though Putin supposedly had known that this was going to happen, he was disappointed that it occurred amid chaos and that the Soviet leadership had not managed it better.

Russian politics

In 1990 Putin returned to Leningrad and continued his undercover intelligence work

for the KGB. In 1991, just as the Soviet Union was beginning to fall apart, Putin left the KGB with the rank of colonel, in order to get involved in politics. Putin went to work for Anatoly Sobchak, the mayor of St. Petersburg, as an aide and in 1994 became deputy mayor.

During Putin's time in city government, he reportedly helped the city build highways, telecommunications, and hotels, all to support foreign investment. Although St. Petersburg never grew to become the financial powerhouse that many had hoped, its fortunes improved as many foreign investors moved in, such as Coca-Cola and Japanese electronics firm NEC.

On to the Kremlin

In 1996, when Sobchak lost his mayoral campaign, Putin was offered a job with the victor, but declined out of loyalty. The next year, he was asked to join President Boris Yeltsin's "inner circle" as deputy chief administrator of the Kremlin, the building that houses the Russian government. In March of 1999, he was named secretary of the Security Council, a body that advises the president on matters of foreign policy, national security, and military and law enforcement.

In August of 1999, after Yeltsin had gone through five prime ministers in seventeen months, he appointed Putin, who many thought was not worthy of succeeding the ill president. For one thing, he had little political experience; for another, his appearance and personality seemed boring. However, Putin increased his appeal among citizens for his role in pursuing the war in Chechnya. In addition to blaming various bombings in Moscow and elsewhere on Chechen terror-

ists, he also used harsh words in criticizing his enemies. Soon, Putin's popularity ratings began to soar.

Acting president of Russia

In December of 1999, Russia held elections for the 450-seat Duma, the lower house of Russia's parliament (governing body). Putin's newly-formed Unity Party came in a close second to the Communists in a stunning showing. Though Putin was not a candidate in this election, he became the obvious front-runner in the upcoming presidential race scheduled for June of 2000.

On New Year's Eve in 1999, Yeltsin unexpectedly stepped down as president, naming Putin as acting president. Immediately, Western news media and the U.S. government scrambled to create a profile of the new Russian leader. Due to Putin's secretive background as a KGB agent, there was little information. His history as a spy caused many Westerners and some Russians as well to question whether he should be feared as an enemy of the free world.

In Putin's first speech as acting president, he promised, "Freedom of speech, freedom of conscience, freedom of the press, the right to private property—these basic principles of a civilized society will be protected," according to a *Newsweek* report. In addition, Putin removed several of Yeltsin's loyalists and relatives from his cabinet.

Elected President

On March 26, 2000, Russians elected Putin out of a field of eleven candidates. After his election, Putin's first legislative move was to win approval of the Start II arms reduction

treaty from the Duma. The deal, which was negotiated seven years earlier, involved decreasing both the Russian and American nuclear buildup by half. Putin's move on this issue was seen as a positive step in his willingness to develop a better relationship with the United States. In addition, one of Putin's earliest moves involved working with a team of economists to develop a plan to improve the country's economy. On May 7, 2000, Putin was officially sworn in as Russia's second president and its first in a free transfer of power in the nation's eleven-hundred-year history.

Putin, a soft-spoken and stone-faced man, keeps his personal life very private. In early 2000, an American publishing company announced that in May it would release an English-language translation of his memoirs, *First Person*, which was banned from publication in Russia until after the March 26 presidential election.

Putin has made great efforts to improve relations with the remaining world powers. In July 2001, Putin met with Chinese President Jiang Zemin (1926–) and the two signed a “friendship treaty” which called for improving trade between China and Russia and improving relations concerning U.S. plans for a missile defense system. Four months later, Putin visited Washington, D.C. to meet with President George W. Bush (1946–) over the defense system. Although they failed to reach a definite agreement, the two leaders did agree to drastically cut the number of nuclear arms in each country. Early in 2002, Putin traveled to Poland and became the first Russian president since 1993 to make this trip. Representatives of the two countries signed agreements involving business, trade, and transportation.

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PYTHAGORAS

Born: c. 575 B.C.E.

Samos, Greece

Died: c. 495 B.C.E.

Metapontum

Greek philosopher, scientist, and religious scholar

The Greek philosopher, scientist, and religious teacher Pythagoras developed a school of thought that accepted the passage of the soul into another body and established many influential mathematical and philosophical theories.

Early life

Born on the island of Samos, off Greece, in the Mediterranean Sea, Pythagoras was the son of Mnesarchus. Little is known about his early life. After studying in Greece, he fled to southern Italy to escape the harsh rule of Polycrates (died c. 522 B.C.E.), who came to power about 538 B.C.E. Pythagoras is said to have traveled to Egypt and Babylon during this time.

Pythagoras and his followers became politically powerful in Croton in southern Italy, where Pythagoras had established a school for his newly formed sect, or group of followers. It is probable that the Pythagore-

ans took positions in the local government in order to lead men to the pure life that was directed by their teachings. Eventually, however, a rival group launched an attack on the Pythagoreans at a gathering of the sect, and the group was almost completely destroyed. Pythagoras either had been forced to leave Croton or had left voluntarily shortly before this attack. He died in Metapontum early in the fifth century B.C.E.

Religious teachings

Pythagoras and his followers were important for their contributions to both religion and science. His religious teachings were based on the doctrine (teaching) of metempsychosis, which teaches that the soul never dies and is destined to a cycle of rebirths until it is able to free itself from the cycle through the purity of its life.

Pythagoreanism differed from the other philosophical systems of its time in being not merely an intellectual search for truth but a whole way of life which would lead to salvation, or to be delivered from sin. An important part of Pythagoreanism was the relationship of all life. A universal life spirit was thought to be present in animal and vegetable life, although there is no evidence to show that Pythagoras believed that the soul could be born in the form of a plant. It could be born, however, in the body of an animal, and Pythagoras claimed to have heard the voice of a dead friend in the howl of a dog being beaten.

Mathematical teachings

The Pythagoreans presented as fact the dualism (that life is controlled by opposite forces) between Limited and Unlimited. It



Pythagoras.

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was probably Pythagoras who declared that numbers could uncover the secrets of the universe, limiting and giving shape to matter (anything that takes up space). His study of musical intervals, leading to the discovery that the chief intervals can be expressed in numerical ratios (relationships between numbers) between the first four integers (positive whole numbers), also led to the theory that the number ten, the sum of the first four integers, embraced the whole nature of number.

So great was the Pythagoreans' respect for the "Tetractys of the Decad" (the sum of 1 + 2

+ 3 + 4) that they swore their oaths (promises) by it rather than by the gods, as was normal during his day. Pythagoras may have discovered the theorem which still bears his name (in right triangles [triangle with one angle equal to 90 degrees], the square on the hypotenuse equals the sum of the squares on the other sides), although this proposal has been discovered on a writing stone dating from the time of the Babylonian king Hammurabi (died c. 1750 B.C.E.). Regardless of their sources, the Pythagoreans did important work in extending the body of mathematical knowledge.

As a more general outline, the Pythagoreans presented the two contraries (opposites), Limited and Unlimited, as ultimate principles, or truths. Numerical oddness and evenness are equated with Limited and Unlimited, as are one and plurality (many), right and left, male and female, motionlessness and movement, straight and crooked, light and darkness, and good and bad. It is not clear whether an ultimate One, or Monad, was presented as the cause of the two categories.

Cosmological views

The Pythagoreans, as a result of their religious beliefs and careful study of mathematics, developed a cosmology (dealing with

the structures of the universe) which differed in some important respects from the world views at the time, the most important of which was their view of the Earth as a sphere which circled the center of the universe. It is not known how much of this theory was credited to Pythagoras himself.

The mathematical knowledge carried out by Pythagoras and his followers would have been enough to make him an important figure in the history of Western thought. However, his religious sect and the self-discipline and dedication which he taught, embracing as it did a vast number of ancient beliefs, make him one of the great teachers of religion in the ancient Greek world.

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MU'AMMAR AL-QADHAFI

Born: 1942

Surt, Libya

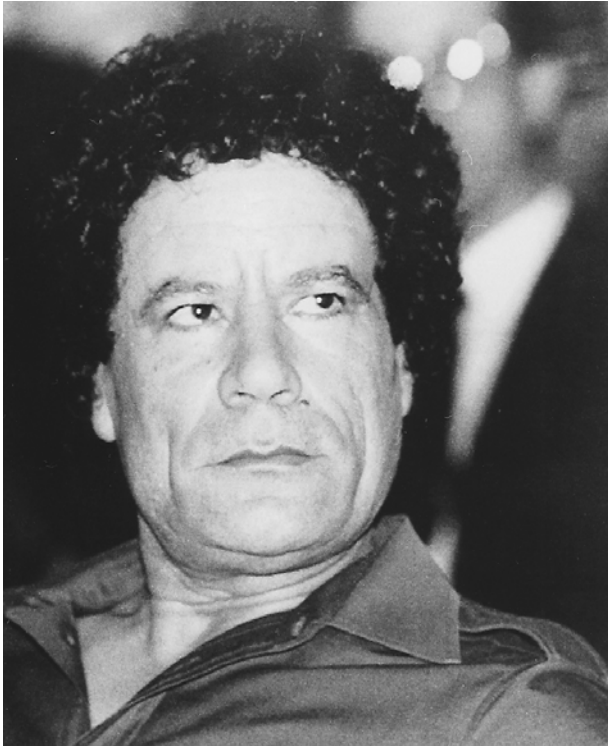
Libyan revolutionary, dictator, and army officer

Mu'ammār al-Qadhafī led the revolution that set up the Libyan republic in 1969. His dream was to unite all Arab lands and create a system of “government by the masses.” However, by encouraging and helping provide funds for terrorist activities (the activities of people who use violence to try to get what they want) against Israel and its allies, he became

an enemy of many countries throughout the world.

Early life and influences

Mu'ammār al-Qadhafī (also written as Qaddafi, Gheddafi, and Khadafi, among others) was born in 1942 in the desert region of Libya bordering the Mediterranean Sea along the Gulf of Sirte. His parents barely made a living herding sheep and goats. He was the last child and only son. Qadhafī was an intelligent boy, and his family made many sacrifices so that he could receive an education. While in school he became inspired by the ideas of Gamal Abdel Nasser (1918–1970), one of the strongest voices calling for Arab independence and unity and a man who had



Mu'ammār al-Qadhafī.

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helped overthrow King Farouk (1920–1965) of Egypt in 1952.

Qadhafi began to organize student protests against Israel, which had been at war with several Arab nations after gaining its independence in 1948. He was expelled as a result and moved to the city of Misurata, Libya, where he completed his high-school education between 1961 and 1963. At the same time he began to organize a movement to overthrow King Idris (1890–1983), who had become Libya's first head of state when the country won its independence from Italy in 1951. Qadhafi felt that King Idris allowed Western powers such as Britain and the

United States to have too much say in Libyan affairs. After joining the army in October 1963, Qadhafi found more supporters to help his cause.

Kingdom to republic

On September 1, 1969, when King Idris was out of the country for health reasons, Qadhafi put his plan into effect. He and his young officers easily took over government and military offices and proclaimed Libya an Arab republic. Qadhafi became president of the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC) and had total control over the new republic. Following the example of his hero, Nasser, Qadhafi called for the removal of American and British military bases from Libya. This action was completed in June 1970. Many reforms were begun, including the nationalizing (giving control or ownership to the national government) of Libya's foreign-owned banks and oil fields. Qadhafi spoke out in favor of Arab unity and strongly criticized Israel. He also urged Libyans to follow the strict teachings of the Islamic faith, such as those that ban smoking, drinking alcohol, and gambling.

Qadhafi announced the People's Revolution in a speech in April 1973. He claimed that he wanted to involve the people as much as possible in the exercising of political power by creating "elected people's committees." On March 2, 1977, the Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriyya (a term meaning "government by the masses") was proclaimed. Qadhafi called for the creation of "revolutionary committees" that did not have clearly defined powers but were called upon to "defend the Revolution." Some were worried about what Qadhafi's motives were. As a

result, there were many attempts, by both Libyans and the agents of foreign governments, to overthrow or kill Qadhafi in the early 1980s. He survived and remained the unquestioned leader of the republic, even though as part of the Jamahiriyya he had given up all formal titles.

Qadhafi was very active in foreign affairs, visiting many foreign countries and almost all Arab lands. He thought it was important to stress his opposition to Israel and his desire for Arab unity. However, his search for political agreements with other countries such as Sudan, Egypt, Tunisia, and Syria achieved only limited results and led to a great deal of mistrust. Qadhafi's opposition to Western interference with Libyan business also led to bad feelings between Libya and the United States. Moreover, the United States accused Libya of supporting armed opposition and terrorist movements in other countries.

Qadhafi claimed that his political concept, the Third Universal Theory, came from the principles of the Koran (the Islamic holy book) and was therefore in harmony with Islam. The publication of the three-part Green Book attempted to explain his ideas. It criticized representative democracies (the systems of government in which people elect representatives to make laws) as being dishonest. The book also claimed that political problems could be solved only by the direct participation of the masses in government, as laid down in the Jamahiriyya. Qadhafi also intended to create a business structure under which workers would become "partners, not employees." The Green Book also placed great emphasis on the role of the family. Himself married and the father of three children, Qadhafi lived simply, rejecting all luxuries and vices.

Supporter of terrorism

As acts of international terrorism became more frequent in the 1980s, Qadhafi drew increased attention as the source of training and funding for such activities. On December 27, 1985, Palestinian terrorists attacked airports in Rome, Italy, and Vienna, Austria. U.S. president Ronald Reagan (1911–) accused Libya of being behind the attacks, but Qadhafi denied involvement. On January 1, 1986, President Reagan ordered all U.S. citizens to leave Libya, and on April 14 the United States bombed the country. Nearly one hundred people were killed in the attack. Qadhafi was injured, and his infant daughter was killed.

After two Libyan men were accused of blowing up a Pan American jet over Lockerbie, Scotland, in 1988, killing 270 people, Qadhafi was ordered to turn over the suspects for trial. His refusal led the United Nations (UN) to impose sanctions (business or military measures adopted against a country to get that country to obey international law) against Libya. These sanctions were lifted in 1999 when the two men were finally brought to trial for the bombing. (One man was convicted.) However, a court in France ruled in 2000 that Qadhafi could be brought to trial in France for his role in another bombing in 1989. In that incident, 171 people were killed when a bomb exploded in a French airplane over the African country of Niger. Qadhafi continued to deny that he was a supporter of terrorism and refused demands that he make payments to families of victims.

Although U.S. sanctions against Libya remained in place, the removal of those imposed by the United Nations led to new efforts by Qadhafi to improve relations with other African and European countries. At a

July 2001 meeting of the Organization of African Unity, African leaders agreed to reorganize the group, to change its name to the African Union, and to work toward greater unity among all member nations. Qadhafi was the leader in the creation of this plan and spent \$1 million to support it. He also announced changes in Libya's government, including the dismissal of the prime minister and foreign minister. These changes, along with the executions of suspected spies and opponents of his policies, led many to believe that Qadhafi, remembering how he had come to power, was becoming more and more afraid of being overthrown himself.

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WALTER RALEIGH

Born: c. 1552

Devonshire, England

Died: October 29, 1618

London, England

English explorer, statesman, and courtier

The English statesman Sir Walter Raleigh was also a soldier, explorer, and a man of letters (a distinguished writer). As a champion of overseas expansion into the New World, Raleigh was a victim of mistrust and Spanish hatred.

Early life

Born into a wealthy family, Walter Raleigh (or Raleigh) was the son of a farmer who earned a great deal of money in shipping ventures. Through his father, Raleigh gained an interest in seafaring. Raleigh spent time at Oriel College, Oxford, England, before leaving to join the Huguenot (Protestant) army in the French religious war in 1569. Five years in France saw him safely through two major battles and the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day, where beginning August 24, 1572, more than seventy thousand French protestants were killed. By 1576 he was in London as a lodger at the Middle Temple and saw his poems in print. His favorite poetic theme, the temporary state of all earthly things, was



Walter Raleigh.

popular with other poets of the Renaissance, a time of great cultural change led by the works of great artists and writers.

After two years in obscurity, Raleigh accompanied his half brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, on a voyage apparently in search of a Northwest Passage to the Orient (Eastern Asia). The voyage quickly developed into a privateering mission against the Spanish, where Raleigh hired out his ship to attack the Spanish. On their return in 1579, Raleigh and Gilbert faced the displeasure of the Privy Council, the advisors to the King. Raleigh's behavior did little to please the council, and he was imprisoned twice in six months for

disturbing the peace. Once out of jail, and at the head of a company of soldiers, he sailed to serve in the Irish wars.

Progress at court

Extravagant in dress and behavior, handsome, and superbly self-confident, Raleigh rose rapidly at court, which consisted of the royal family and its advisors. His opinion of Ireland was accepted by Queen Elizabeth (1558–1603), and she kept him home as an adviser. He received royal favor as well, including a house in London and two estates in Oxford.

Raleigh was knighted (given the honorary distinction of knighthood) in 1584 and the next year became the chief officer of the stannaries (or mines) in Devon and Cornwall, lord lieutenant of Cornwall, and vice admiral of the West. Although he was hated for his arrogance, his reforms (improvements) of the mining codes made him very popular. He sat for Devonshire in the Parliaments (meetings of the governing body of England) of 1584 and 1586 and then went on to succeed Sir Christopher Hatton as captain of the Queen's Guard—his highest office at court.

Overseas

By 1582 Humphrey Gilbert had organized a company to settle English Catholics in the Americas. Although forbidden by Elizabeth to accompany his half brother, Raleigh invested money and a ship of his own design to the mission. After Gilbert's death on the return from Newfoundland, a region that is now a province of eastern Canada, Raleigh was given a charter (authority from the queen) to "occupy and enjoy" new lands. Raleigh sailed as soon as he had his charter and reached the

Carolina shore of America, claiming the land for himself.

At the same time, Raleigh sought to persuade Elizabeth into a more active role in his proposed colonizing venture, which would settle lands newly discovered in America. Although unconvinced, she reluctantly gave a ship and some funds. Raleigh remained at court and devoted his energies to financing the operation. The first settlers were transported by Raleigh's cousin Sir Richard Grenville (1542–1591). Fights, lack of discipline, and hostile Indians led the colonists to return to England with Francis Drake (c.1543–1596) in 1586, bringing with them potatoes and tobacco—two things unknown in Europe until that time.

John White (died c.1593) led a second expedition the next year. The coming of the Spanish Armada (a large fleet of warships) delayed the sending of supplies for more than two years. When the relief ships reached the colony in 1591, it had vanished. Raleigh sent other expeditions to the Virginia coast but failed to establish a permanent settlement there. His charter would eventually be withdrawn by James I (1566–1625) in 1603.

Retirement from court

In 1591 Raleigh was to have gone to sea in search of the Spanish fleet, but Elizabeth refused permission. Instead, Grenville was sent and soon trapped by Spanish forces. Raleigh raised a new fleet to avenge his cousin. Upon his return Raleigh was imprisoned for a short time in the Tower of London because the queen had discovered his relationship with Elizabeth Throgmorton, one of her own maids of honor. (Raleigh later married Elizabeth Throgmorton.)

In 1596 Raleigh and his court rival, Robert Devereux (1566–1601), led a brilliantly successful raid on Cadiz, Spain, and he seemed to have finally satisfied Elizabeth. He was readmitted to court, continued to serve in Parliament, held more naval commands, and became governor of the island of Jersey. With Devereux's execution for treason (crimes against one's country), Raleigh's place as Elizabeth's favorite seemed secure. But the queen herself was near death, and Raleigh's enemies lost no time in poisoning the mind of James Stuart (1566–1625), her successor, against him.

His imprisonment

After James I took the throne, Raleigh was dismissed from his posts and forced out of his London house. Soon after, he was falsely connected to a plot against the king and was once again sentenced to the Tower, where he attempted to kill himself. Raleigh was sentenced to death, a sentence that would later be dropped. He was imprisoned for thirteen years.

Raleigh attracted the sympathy and friendship of James's eldest son, Henry, who sought his advice on matters of shipbuilding and naval defense. Raleigh dedicated his monumental "History of the World," written during this period of imprisonment, to the prince. Henry protested Raleigh's continued imprisonment but died before he could effect his release.

Last voyage

Freed early in 1616, Raleigh invested most of his remaining funds in the projected voyage to search for gold mines in South America. The expedition, which sailed in June of the follow-

ing year, was a disastrous failure. No treasure or mines were found, and Raleigh's men violated James's strict instructions to avoid fighting with Spanish colonists in the area. Still worse, during the battle with the Spaniards, Raleigh's eldest son, Walter, was killed.

Upon his return Raleigh was arrested once again. James and Sarmiento, the Spanish ambassador, wanted him tried on a charge of piracy, but since he was already under a sentence of death, a new trial was not possible. His execution would have to proceed from the charge of treason of 1603. James agreed to this course, and Raleigh was beheaded on October 29, 1618.

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SRI

RAMAKRISHNA

Born: February 18, 1833

Kamapukur, India

Died: August 16, 1886

Calcutta, India

Indian religious leader and mystic

Sri Ramakrishna was an Indian mystic (one whose religious beliefs are based on spirituality and practices outside of traditional religion), reformer, and saint who, in his own lifetime, came to be hailed by people of all classes as a spiritual embodiment (taking on the physical form) of God.

Childhood

Born in a rural Bengal village in India, Sri Ramakrishna was the fourth of five children. His parents were simple but traditional Brahmins (Hindu religion) deeply committed to the maintenance of traditional religious piety, or religious devotion. Legend has it that when Ramakrishna's father, Khudiram, made a pilgrimage (religious journey) to the holy place of Gaya, he had a vision of the Hindu god Vishnu, who told Khudiram he would be reincarnated (take the form) of his next son. Likewise, Ramakrishna's mother, Chandra Devi, had visions that her next born would be a divine (god-like) child. Shortly afterwards, Chandra Devi gave birth to Sri Ramakrishna.

As a child, Ramakrishna did not like routine schoolwork and never learned to read or write. Instead, he began to demonstrate spiritual qualities well beyond his years, which included experiencing intensely joyful experiences, long periods of thought, and spiritual absorption in the sacred (holy) and traditional Indian plays, especially with the roles of the gods Shiva and Krishna. During his formal initiation ceremony into the Brahmin caste (an Indian social class), he shocked his high-caste relatives by openly accepting a ritual meal cooked by a woman of low caste.

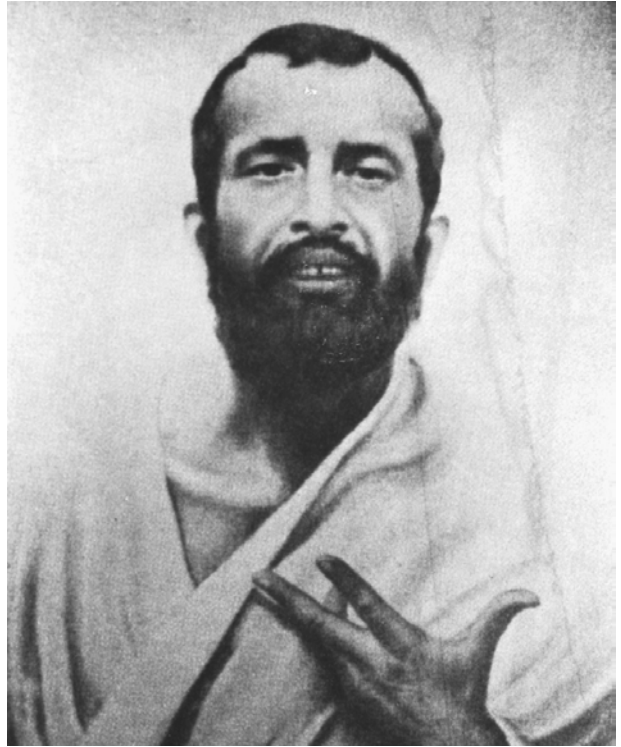
Though Ramakrishna resisted traditional priestly studies, at the age of sixteen he went to Calcutta, India, to assist his brother, who

was serving as a priest for a number of local families. He was disturbed by the gross business practices and inhumanity of the city environment. However, when his brother was asked to become a priest at a large temple complex at Dakshineswar near the Ganges River outside Calcutta, Ramakrishna found a new and ultimately permanent environment for his spiritual growth and teaching.

Spiritual struggles

That temple complex—one of the most impressive in the area—had been built by a wealthy widow of low caste whose spiritual ideal (standard) was the mother goddess Kali. This great deity (god) traditionally combines the terror of death and destruction with universal motherly security and is often represented in a statue of ferocious appearance. She represents an immense variety of religious and human emotions, from the most primitive to the highest forms, and therefore has a symbolic universality not easily contained within traditional religious forms.

Ramakrishna was selected to serve as priest in the Kali temple, and it was here that he had a series of important religious experiences in which he felt that Kali was calling him to a universal spiritual mission for India and all mankind. His untraditional and often bizarre behavior during this period of spiritual transformation was interpreted by many as a sign of madness. However, it clearly represented his struggles to free himself from routine religious patterns and to achieve a new and deeper spirituality. He imitated the actions of the god-monkey Hanuman (a sign of humility and service); he fed animals from the same food prepared for Kali (a disrespect to the traditionalists); he cleaned an outcaste's hovel (the shack



Sri Ramakrishna.

of a person expelled from his or her caste) with his hair, a terrible insult for a Brahmin; he sang and danced wildly when the spirit moved; and he rejected his Brahminical status, believing that caste superiority lowered the character of his spirituality. All of these acts symbolized his inward spiritual transformation.

Spiritual maturity

When Ramakrishna was twenty-eight his emotional confusion eased, and he began to study a wide variety of traditional religious teachings. His teachers were impressed with his ability to learn, his amazing memory, and his remarkable talent for spiritual skill. He was openly hailed as a supreme sage, one who

is regarded for his wisdom and experience. At the age of thirty-three he began to study Muslim tradition, and after a short period of instruction he had a vision of a “radiant figure”—interpreted as the founder of Islam Mohammed (c. 570–632) himself, which solidified his universal religious calling.

In 1868 Ramakrishna undertook an extensive pilgrimage; but despite the honors given to him he was saddened by the poverty (extremely poor conditions) of the masses and began living with outcaste groups to bring awareness to their situation, insisting that his rich patrons (supporters) make formal efforts to improve their condition. He was always a man of the people: simple, full of warmth, and without snobbishness or religious dogma (system of beliefs).

World mission

By now Ramakrishna had a wide following from all classes and groups. He was not merely a great teacher; he was regarded as a physical form of the sacred source of Indian religious tradition and of the universal ideals toward which all men strive. His spiritual energies and attractive personality were combined with a sharp sense of humor—often aimed at himself or his disciples (followers) when the hazards of pride and self-satisfaction seemed impossible to avoid.

During the last decade of his life, one of the most important events was the conversion of his disciple Vivekananda (1863–1902), who was destined to organize and promote Ramakrishna’s teachings throughout India, Europe, and the United States. In 1886, when Ramakrishna was near death, he formally designated Vivekananda his spiritual heir, or one who takes over his teachings.

Ramakrishna’s teachings do not appear in any clear form. He wrote nothing. His disciples recorded his words only in the context of the spiritual force of his personality, and therefore in collected form these sayings have the character of a gospel—a message of salvation centered in the spiritual teachings of his own life. He rejected all efforts to worship him personally; rather, he suggested that his presentation of man’s spiritual potential serve as a guide and inspiration to others. Above all, Ramakrishna had a “grass-roots” appeal equaled by few others in any religious tradition, marked by his love of all men and his enthusiasm for all forms of spirituality.

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A. PHILIP
RANDOLPH

Born: April 15, 1889
Crescent City, Florida

Died: May 16, 1979

New York, New York

*African American civil rights leader
and trade unionist*

The American labor and civil rights leader A. Philip Randolph, considered the most prominent of all African American trade unionists, was one of the major figures in the struggle for civil rights and racial equality.

Early life and education

Asa Philip Randolph was born in Crescent City, Florida, on April 15, 1889, the second of two sons of James and Elizabeth Randolph. His father was a traveling minister of the African Methodist Episcopal Church and his mother was also devoted to the church. Both of his parents were strong supporters of equal rights for African Americans. The young Randolph had a close relationship with his older brother, William. The brothers' early childhood games included role playing in which they worked for African American rights. The family moved to Jacksonville, Florida, in 1891. Asa attended local primary schools and later went on to the Cookman Institute in Jacksonville, Florida.

In the spring of 1911 Randolph left Florida for New York City, where he studied at the City College of New York while working as an elevator operator, a porter, and a waiter. While taking classes at the City College, Randolph discovered great works of literature, especially those of English playwright William Shakespeare (1564–1616), and he also began to sharpen his public speaking skills.

Beginning the fight

Following his marriage in 1914 to Lucille E. Green, he helped organize the Shakespearean Society in Harlem and played the roles of Hamlet, Othello, and Romeo, among others. At the age of twenty-one Randolph joined the Socialist Party of Eugene V. Debs (1855–1926). (The Socialist Party is a political party that believes the producers, or working class, should have the political power and ability to distribute goods.) In 1917 Randolph and Chandler Owen founded the *Messenger*, a radical publication now regarded by scholars as among the most brilliantly edited work in African American journalism.

Randolph's belief that the African American can never be politically free until he was economically secure led him to become the foremost supporter of the full integration of black workers into the American trade union movement (bringing blacks into the ranks of trade unions, which fight for the rights of workers). In 1925 he undertook the leadership of the campaign to organize the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters (BSCP), which would become the first African American union in the country. The uphill battle, marked by fierce resistance from the Pullman Company (who was then the largest employers of African Americans in the country), was finally won in 1937 and made possible the first contract ever signed by a white employer with an African American labor leader. Later, Randolph served as president emeritus (honorary president) of the BSCP and a vice-president of the American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations.



A. Philip Randolph.

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Making changes

In the 1940s Randolph developed the strategy of mass protest to win two major executive orders, or orders from the government. In 1941, with America's entrance into World War II (1939–45), he developed the idea of a massive march on Washington, D.C., to protest the exclusion (to keep out) of African American workers from jobs in the industries that were producing war supplies. He agreed to call off the march only after President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945) issued Executive Order 8802, which banned discrimination (selection based on race) in defense plants and established the nation's

first Fair Employment Practice Committee. In 1948 Randolph warned President Harry Truman (1884–1972) that if segregation (separation based on race) in the armed forces was not abolished (to put an end to), masses of African Americans would refuse entering the armed forces. Soon Executive Order 9981 was issued to comply with his demands.

In 1957 Randolph organized the Prayer Pilgrimage to Washington to support civil rights efforts in the South, and in 1957 and 1958 he organized a Youth March for Integrated Schools. In August 1963, Randolph organized the March on Washington, D.C., fighting for jobs and freedom. This was the site of Martin Luther King Jr.'s (1929–1968) famed "I Have a Dream," speech, and a quarter million people went in support. Randolph was called "the chief" by King. And in 1966, at the White House conference "To Fulfill These Rights," he proposed a ten-year program called a "Freedom Budget" which would eliminate poverty for all Americans regardless of race.

Legacy

The story of Randolph's career reads like a history of the struggles for unionization (creating trade unions) and civil rights in this century. He lent his voice to each struggle and enhanced the development of democracy (government by the people) and equality in America. Randolph always said that his inspiration came from his father. "We never felt that we were inferior to any white boys," Randolph said. "We were told constantly and continuously that 'you are as able,' 'you are as competent,' and 'you have as much intellectuality as any individual.'" Randolph died on May 16, 1979.

However, Randolph's message lived on. Seventeen years after his death, Randolph's civil

rights leadership and labor activism became the subject of a 1996 Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) documentary, "A. Philip Randolph: For Jobs and Freedom." The tribute that took him from "obscurity" to a force that "moved presidents," was presented during Black History Month, in February, telling his story through reenactments, film footage, and photos.

Included were powerful images of the quest, including the formation of the National Association for the Promotion of Labor Unionism Among Negroes in 1919 and the twelve-year battle to organize porters in spite of the Pullman Company's use of spies and firings to stop it.

Throughout Randolph's years as a labor and civil rights leader, he rocked the foundations of racial segregation, pressuring presidents and corporations alike to recognize the need to fix the injustices heaped on African Americans. Embracing a nonviolent, forward-looking activism, Randolph will be remembered as both a radical activist and "Saint Philip."

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HARUN AL-RASHID

Born: c. 766

Reyy, Persia

Died: c. 809

Tus, Persia

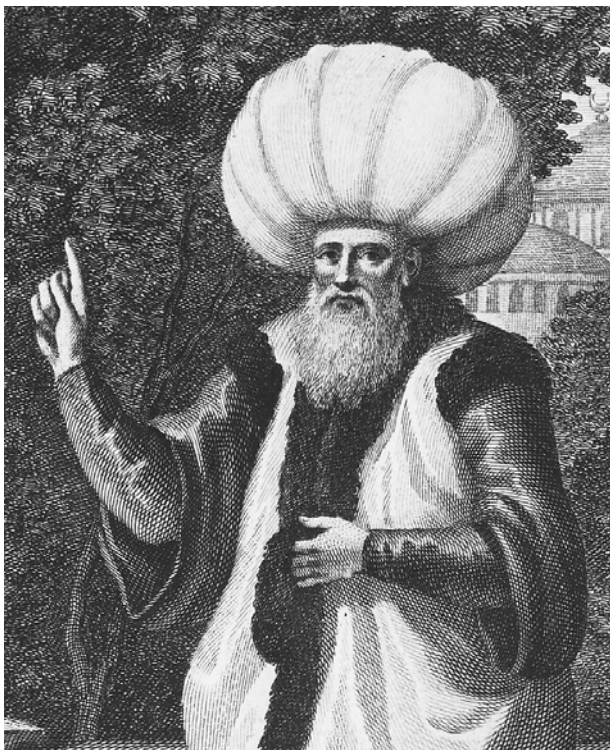
Persian caliph

Harun al-Rashid became the fifth caliph (religious and political leader of an Islamic state) of the Abbasid dynasty (ruling family) in September 786 at the age of twenty. During his reign the power and prosperity of the dynasty was at its height, though it has also been argued that its decline began at that time.

Early life

Harun al-Rashid was born at Reyy near Tehran, Iran, in 766. He was the third son of the third Abbasid caliph, Mohammed al-Mahdi and his wife Khayzuran, a former slave from Yemen. Harun was raised as a prince in the court at Baghdad, Iran. At the age of sixteen he was named second heir after his older brother, Musa al-Hadi.

Rashid's instructor and aide during his early youth was Yahya ibn Khalid the Bar-makid (a powerful Persian family). Yahya continued to advise Rashid when he was named the leader of military expeditions against the Byzantines at age fourteen. The Byzantines were inhabitants of Byzantium, the seat of the Christian Empire. Rashid was rewarded for the success of these campaigns by being named governor of Ifriqiyah (Tunisia), Egypt, Syria, Armenia, and Azerbaijan Province in Iran. The honorific, or title, of al-Rashid (the Upright) was added to his name.



Harun al-Rashid.

*Reproduced by permission of Hulton-Getty/
Tony Stone Impressions.*

Rashid's father died in 785 and his brother al-Hadi assumed the throne. Al-Hadi, however, died mysteriously in September 786. His death was said to have been the result of a court conspiracy or plot. Rashid was proclaimed caliph. He at once appointed Yahya as his vizier, or primary minister.

His reign

Rashid, for the first seventeen years of his reign, relied to a great extent on his vizier and two of the vizier's sons, al-Fadl and Jafar. Yahya appears to have been an exceptionally

good administrator. He is known for showing great wisdom in selecting and training his staff. His two sons had similar qualities. However, they fell from favor suddenly on the night of January 28, 803, when they were imprisoned and had their lands taken from them. The basic reason for this action was that the Barmakid family had become too powerful.

By this time Rashid was finding it difficult to hold his vast empire together. There was an almost constant series of local uprisings. An independent territory was established in Morocco by the Idrisid dynasty in 789. The following year, a semi-independent territory was established in Tunisia by the Aghlabid dynasty. These events marked a significant loss of power by Rashid's central government.

The danger of breaking up the government was further increased by Rashid's unwise arrangement for succession. One son, al-Amin, was to become caliph and another son, al-Mamun, was to have control of certain provinces and of a section of the army.

The seat of the Christian Empire was Byzantium (Constantinople). Rashid took a personal interest in the campaigns against the Byzantines. He led expeditions against them in 797, 803, and 806. In 797 the Byzantine empress Irene made peace and agreed to pay a large sum of money. Her successor, the emperor Nicephorus, later denounced this treaty. In 806 he was forced to make an even more humiliating treaty, which required paying annual tribute to Baghdad.

Though it is not mentioned in Arabic sources, there seem to have been diplomatic contacts between Rashid and Charlemagne

(c. 742–814), the most famous European ruler of the Middle Ages. Rashid recognized Charlemagne as protector of Christian pilgrims to Jerusalem.

Rashid died at Tus in eastern Persia in 809, during an expedition to restore order there.

The view of history

The poet Alfred, Lord Tennyson, thinking of some of the stories of the *Arabian Nights*, spoke of “the good Haroun Alraschid.” However, the scholar R. A. Nicholson thought he was an “irascible [irritable; readily angered] tyrant, whose fitful amiability [good-naturedness] and real taste for music and letters hardly entitle him to be described either as a great monarch or a good man.”

Despite all its violence and cruelty and its readiness to have human beings executed and tortured, the court of Harun al-Rashid undoubtedly had something which later ages admire. It was far from being without a conscience, and in the quality of its living there were elements of grandeur and a nobility of style; and the tone of this life was set by Rashid and the Barmakids.

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RONALD REAGAN

Born: February 6, 1911

Tampico, Illinois

American president, actor, and governor

Beginning as a radio sports announcer, Ronald Reagan enjoyed success as a movie actor and television personality before beginning a political career. After two terms as governor of California (1967–1975), he defeated Democrat Jimmy Carter (1924–) for the presidency in 1980 and was re-elected in 1984.

Illinois youth

Born on February 6, 1911, in Tampico, Illinois, Ronald Wilson Reagan was the second son of John Edward (“Jack”) and Nelle Wilson Reagan. His parents were relatively poor, and Jack Reagan moved the family to a number of small Illinois towns trying to establish himself in business. When Ronald was nine the family moved to Dixon, Illinois, where he grew to adulthood.

Nicknamed “Dutch,” young Reagan liked solitude but was popular. He enjoyed nature, reading, and especially sports. His father’s alcoholism caused problems at home, but his mother was a powerful force for stability. As a teenager and young man, Reagan gained fame for his accomplishments as a lifeguard, rescuing seventy-seven people during the summers of 1926 to 1933, while working in a park along Illinois’s Rock River. (Reagan also dove into the river to “save” one swimmer’s dentures from the river bottom—for which he received a ten-dollar tip.) Rea-

gan graduated from Dixon High School in 1928 and enrolled the following fall at Eureka College, a small Illinois school affiliated with his mother's church. He graduated from Eureka in 1932.

On the air and screen

Graduating in the middle of the national and world economic crisis known as the Great Depression (1929-39), Reagan eventually found a job in Davenport, Iowa, as a sports announcer for a radio station. His skill soon earned him a position at WHO in Des Moines, Iowa. At the station one of his chief duties was to reconstruct Chicago Cubs baseball game broadcasts from reports sent by telegraph (a communication device that uses coded signals to send messages). In 1937 Reagan persuaded WHO to send him to cover the Cubs' spring training games in California. However, his real motive was to try to launch an acting career in Hollywood, and he was soon appearing in the movies.

As an actor Reagan received decent reviews, but not especially good roles. In 1940, however, he landed a role that made him famous, playing college football star George Gipp in the movie *Knute Rockne—All American*. In January 1940 he married actress Jane Wyman (1914–), with whom he had a daughter and adopted a son, although another infant born to them died in June 1947. The marriage began to fail shortly thereafter, and Reagan and Wyman divorced in June of 1948.

Part of the cause for the divorce was apparently Reagan's near-obsession in the late 1940s with the business of the Screen Actors Guild. He was president of the guild, which is the labor union for movie actors, from

1947 to 1952, and again in 1959. During this time he also became well known for his strong anticommunist views. Meanwhile, his own acting career began to falter, as he was offered a limited range of roles. Personally, however, he achieved happiness with his marriage in March 1952 to actress Nancy Davis (1921–). The couple had two children.

Disappointed by his diminishing movie opportunities and financially pressed, Reagan soon turned to television. Signed by the General Electric (G.E.) company in 1954 as the host of the company's weekly half-hour dramatic series, *General Electric Theater*, Reagan was a TV success. Taking advantage of Reagan's popularity, G.E. insisted that he go on personal appearance tours, speaking at G.E. factories. Within a few years, he perfected "the speech": a salute to private enterprise with an "anticollectivist" (anticommunist) message, combined with a sales pitch for G.E. products.

Governor and candidate

In 1962 Reagan formally registered as a member of the Republican Party. He began to plunge full time into political activities. He captured national attention with a speech supporting Republican presidential candidate Barry Goldwater in 1964.

By early 1965 a group of prominent California conservatives (people who resist change and prefer to keep traditions) decided Reagan should run for governor of their state. Benefiting from massive financial support, shrewd campaigning, and a strong conservative trend among California's voters, Reagan easily won the Republican primary. Running against Democratic governor Edmund G. (Pat) Brown (1905–1996) in the general election, he won with 58 percent of the vote in 1966.

Reagan took immediate, dramatic action as governor, approving sweeping cuts in the state's budget and a freeze on additional hiring for state agencies. He also raised state income-tax rates. Reelected in 1970, he established a reputation for sound financial management and pressed for reform of the state welfare system, tightening the requirements applicants needed to meet in order to receive aid from the state.

During his first term Reagan made an energetic run for the 1968 Republican presidential nomination. He did not win the nomination, but his campaign established him as a future presidential possibility. In 1976 he gave Republican president Gerald Ford (1913–) a hard but unsuccessful race for his party's nomination. Reagan then became his party's leading candidate for the 1980 Republican nomination.

Early White House years

After announcing his candidacy once again in late 1979, Reagan campaigned aggressively as a strong conservative. His masterful performance in a televised debate with President Jimmy Carter (1924–) sealed his victory. In November 1980 Reagan became the nation's fortieth president. His election was viewed by many as a “new beginning,” as the Republicans also won control of the Senate.

As chief executive Reagan maintained generally high ratings in public-opinion polls. He was wounded in March 1981 when John Hinckley attempted to assassinate him, an event that boosted public support still further. Although he irritated his most conservative supporters when, in 1981, he appointed the first female Supreme Court justice, San-



*Ronald Reagan.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

dra Day O'Connor (1930–), he kept most of his conservative following by sticking to his goal of reducing taxes and increasing defense spending while also reducing spending for social programs. In 1981 Reagan persuaded Congress to pass a large, three-year reduction in income-tax rates, even though federal deficits were more than \$100 billion per year. The issue of deficits—spending that exceeds revenue—continued to trouble the Reagan presidency.

The “Great Communicator”

Reagan's skill in handling the media earned him the nickname the “Great Commu-

nicator” and allowed him to become the spokesman and symbol of the political movement that elected him. However, his actions as president were not always as aggressive as his words. Although he darkly referred to the Soviet Union as “evil,” he ended the Carter-imposed halt on grain shipments to that country. He committed a large number of U.S. Marines to help keep peace during the civil war in the Middle East nation of Lebanon, but he removed them after an attack against them led to 240 American deaths.

Reagan's second term

By 1984 Reagan appeared difficult to beat for re-election. In the November polling, he defeated Democratic challenger Walter Mondale (1928–) easily, with 58 percent of the popular vote. After winning re-election, Reagan continued to talk tough concerning the Soviet Union, but he also worked to pursue an agreement with the country to limit weapons. Meetings with Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev (1931–) in 1985 and 1986 accomplished little toward that goal, however, and Reagan pressed ahead with an aggressive program of national defense.

Meanwhile, economic problems at home did not improve, as the deficit continued at record-high levels and the nation continued to import more than it exported. In addition, in late 1986 Reagan ran into serious problems due to the “Iran-contra” scandal. This scandal involved a secret sale of arms to Iran, apparently to gain the release of American hostages held by terrorists in Lebanon who supported Iran. The profits of the sale were directed towards aid to the “contras”—forces struggling to overthrow a socialist government in Nicaragua. Congress, however, had

banned such aid. Congressional hearings on the scandal captured headlines throughout 1987, revealing significant misstatements by Reagan and apparent misuse of power by some in his administration.

As Reagan's second term drew to a close, it was clear that he had not accomplished the conservative “revolution” predicted in 1980. However, an important part of his legacy was the increased conservatism of the Supreme Court. Reagan's appointment to the court of justices O'Connor, Antonin Scalia (1936–), and Anthony Kennedy (1936–), along with the promotion of William Rehnquist (1924–) to the position of Chief Justice, had moved the court strongly to the right.

Struggle with Alzheimer's

After his return to private citizenship in 1989, Reagan continued to be a popular and active public figure. By the mid-1990s, however, Reagan had been diagnosed with Alzheimer's disease, an ultimately fatal degeneration, or breaking down, of the central nervous system. As his condition deteriorated, Reagan withdrew from public appearances.

Throughout his presidency, Reagan maintained a hold on the public's affection unequalled since the presidency of Dwight Eisenhower (1890–1969). Many would agree that Ronald Reagan, however history might judge his presidency, possessed a gift for inspiring the American people with his speaking style and personality.

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CHRISTOPHER REEVE

Born: September 25, 1952

New York, New York

American actor and activist

Best known for the lead role in *Superman*, Christopher Reeve has dedicated his life to those with disabilities ever since he suffered an injury that left him paralyzed from the neck down.

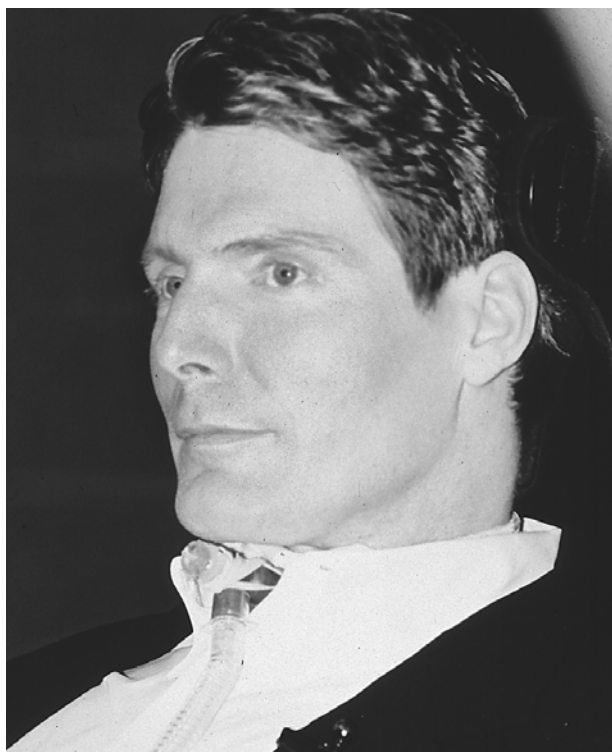
Rise to stardom

Christopher Reeve was born September 25, 1952, the oldest of two sons born to

Franklin D. Reeve, a novelist, translator, and university professor, and Barbara Pitney Lamb Johnson, a journalist. Reeve's parents were divorced when he was about four years old, and he moved with his mother and brother to Princeton, New Jersey. Although he enjoyed a privileged childhood following his mother's remarriage to a stockbroker, he nevertheless had to cope with the anger and tension that characterized his parents' relationship.

Reeve would often pass the time during his youth playing the piano, swimming, sailing, or engaging in some other similar activity. While he was still just a child around ten or so the stage began to call. His very first role was in a Princeton theater company's production of Gilbert and Sullivan's *The Yeoman of the Guard*, and after that experience, Reeve was hooked. Later, as a gawky teenager lacking in self-confidence, he found that acting helped him overcome his feelings of clumsiness and insecurity. Reeve starred in virtually every stage production at his exclusive private high school and also spent the summer months immersed in the theater, either as a student or an actor. By the time he was sixteen, he was a true professional with an Actors' Equity Association membership card and an agent.

After graduating from high school in 1970, Reeve attended Cornell University, where he earned a bachelor's degree in English and music theory in 1974. Meanwhile, he continued his drama education, serving as a backstage observer at both the Old Vic in London, England, and the Comedie-Francaise in Paris, France, before enrolling in the Juilliard School for Drama in New York City to pursue graduate studies.



Christopher Reeve.

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Reeve's first major acting assignment came shortly after his graduation from Cornell when he joined the cast of the television soap opera *Love of Life*. He remained with the program for two years, during which time he also performed on stage in the evenings with various New York City theater companies, including the Manhattan Theater Club and the Circle Repertory Company. In 1975 Reeve headed to California and won his first movie role, a bit part in a 1978 nuclear submarine disaster movie titled *Gray Lady Down*. But when no other work was forthcoming, he returned to New York City and appeared in an off-Broadway play that opened in January 1977.

Superman

Then, to Reeve's surprise, Hollywood came calling with an offer to try out for the role of Superman in an upcoming film of the same title. At first, Reeve thought the idea was downright silly and very untheatrical, but when he read the script, he loved it. When *Superman* premiered in December 1978, it met with almost universal critical praise and box-office success. Suddenly, Reeve was a megastar with all of the baggage that entailed, including countless demands on his time, a total loss of privacy, and the danger of being offered only similar roles to the "Man of Steel."

Superman II, which Reeve had agreed to do when he signed on for the first film, was spectacularly successful upon its debut in mid-1981. The critics also liked it, with some even saying that it was better than the first movie. Throughout the 1980s and early 1990s, Reeve enjoyed an increasingly busy film career. Besides reprising his most famous role in *Superman III* (1983) and *Superman IV: The Quest for Peace* (1987), which he also helped write, Reeve appeared in about a dozen other pictures, including *Deathtrap* (1982), *Noises Off* (1992), *The Remains of the Day* (1993), and *Village of the Damned* (1995).

Tragedy strikes the Man of Steel

On May 27, 1995, Reeve's world was shattered in a matter of seconds when he was thrown from his horse head first during an equestrian competition in Virginia. The impact smashed the two upper vertebrae in his spine, leaving him completely paralyzed from the neck down and able to breathe only with assistance from a ventilator. Reeve remained in intensive care for five weeks as

he fought off sickness, underwent surgery to fuse the broken vertebrae in his neck, and weathered several other life-threatening complications of his injury.

With Reeve's characteristic grit and determination, he set about the task of putting his life in order. He mastered the art of talking between breaths of his ventilator. He learned how to use his specialized wheelchair, which he commands by blowing puffs of air into a straw-like control device. Always hungry for the smallest sign of progress, he did countless exercises, competing against himself to improve and grow stronger.

Reeve astounded his friends and admirers by making his first public appearance on October 16, 1995, less than six months after his accident. The occasion was an awards dinner held by the Creative Coalition, an actors' advocacy organization he had helped establish. Reeve joked with the audience about what had happened to him and immediately put everyone at ease, then introduced his old friend Robin Williams (1952–), who was being honored for the work he had done on behalf of the group.

Facing the future

The awards dinner was just the beginning for Reeve, who has since channeled his considerable energies into a wide variety of endeavors. Before his accident, Reeve was an activist on behalf of children's issues, human rights, the environment, and the National Endowment for the Arts (NEA). He has since assumed the role of national spokesman for the disabled, especially those people who, like him, have suffered spinal-cord injuries. He is also the founder of the Christopher Reeve Paralysis Foundation, which raises funds for

biomedical research and acts as a champion for the disabled, and serves as chairman of the American Paralysis Association.

Meanwhile, Reeve continues to cope with the daily trials and occasional triumphs related to his quadriplegia, or being paralyzed from the neck down. "You don't want the condition to define you," he once commented, "and yet it occupies your every thought." While he may never be completely free of his respirator (a device to help one breathe), he does manage to go without it for several hours at a time. He can move his head and shrug his shoulders, and he reports some movement and sensation in his hands and feet.

Reeve is determined to walk again; one of his fondest dreams has been to stand up on his fiftieth birthday in 2002 and offer a toast to all of the people who helped him get to that point. "When John Kennedy promised that by the end of the 1960s we would put a man on the moon," Reeve told *Time* magazine, "everybody, including the scientists, shook their heads in dismay. But we did it. We can cure spinal-cord injuries too, if there's the will. What was possible in outer space is possible in inner space."

Christopher Reeve, husband to Dana Morisini since 1992, is the father of three children. He continues to be an inspiration to many, frequently traveling across the world to speak and to support various groups and organizations.

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ERICH MARIA REMARQUE

Born: July 22, 1898

Osnabrück, Germany

Died: September 25, 1970

Locarno, Switzerland

German-born American author

The German-born American author Erich Maria Remarque was a popular novelist whose *All Quiet on the Western Front*, describing the soldier's life in World War I (1914–18; a war involving Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey on one side, and Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, Japan, and the United States on the other), was a best-seller.

Early life

Erich Maria Remarque, whose real name was Erich Paul Remark, was born on July 22, 1898, in Osnabrück, Germany, the only son among Peter Franz Remark and Anna Maria Remark's three children. His father worked as a bookbinder. The family was poor and moved at least eleven times during Remarque's childhood. He began writing at age sixteen or seventeen.

Remarque attended the University of Münster and was planning for a career as an

elementary school teacher. Toward the end of World War I, which Germany had entered in support of Austria-Hungary, he was drafted into the army. While recovering in a German hospital from wounds suffered during the war, Remarque worked on *Die Traumbude* (*The Dream Room*), his first novel, which was published in 1920. Around this time he switched to the original French spelling of his last name. After the war he worked as a press reader, teacher, salesman, and racing driver, among other professions.

Popular success

The immense success of *Im Westen nichts Neues* (1929; *All Quiet on the Western Front*) established Remarque as an author. This novel falls into a class of antiwar and antimilitary fiction that grew rapidly in Germany in the later 1920s—Arnold Zweig's (1887–1968) *Sergeant Grischa* is another famous example. These books are characterized by a matter-of-fact, often conversational style similar to that of a newspaper or magazine report.

Although Remarque conceals little of the horror and bloodiness of life in the trenches, at the same time there is a sentimental streak in the book that is maintained strongly right through to the last pages, in which, following the death of his friend, the hero himself dies two weeks before the end of the war, on a day when all is reported quiet at the front. *All Quiet on the Western Front* was translated into some twenty-five languages and sold over thirty million copies. The 1930 film version of the book was a huge box-office hit and won several Academy Awards.

Blacklisted in Germany

Remarque's next book was also a war novel, *Der Weg zurück* (1931; *The Road Back*). *Drei Kameraden* (1937; *Three Comrades*) deals with life in postwar Germany and is also a tragic love story. By 1929 Remarque had left Germany and lived in Switzerland. The pacifism (opposition to war or violence) in his works and their strong sense of sadness and suffering made them very unpopular with the Nazi government (the controlling party in Germany beginning in the 1930s that scorned democracy and considered all non-Germans, and especially Jewish people, as inferior). In 1938, in fact, Remarque was stripped of his German citizenship.

In 1939 Remarque arrived in the United States, and he became an American citizen in 1947. His next novel, *Liebe deinen Nächsten* (1940), was published in America under the title *Flotsam*. After World War II (1939–45), in which Germany, Japan, and Italy were defeated by the Allies (including the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union, among others), Remarque's productivity increased, and he turned more and more to the study of personal relationships set against a background of war and social destruction. *Arc de Triomphe* (1946), the story of a German refugee (someone who is forced to live outside of his or her own country) doctor in Paris, France, just before World War II, returned Remarque's name to the best-seller lists.

Later years

Remarque's later works include *Zeit zu leben und Zeit zu sterben* (1954; *A Time to Love and a Time to Die*), *Der schwarze Obelisk*



Erich Maria Remarque.

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(1956; *The Black Obelisk*), *Der Funke Leben* (1957; *Spark of Life*), *Der Himmel kennt keine Günstlinge* (1961; *Heaven Has No Favorites*), and *Die Nacht von Lissabon* (1962; *The Night in Lisbon*). All these novels are gripping and skillful stories of personal crisis, escape, and adventure. Remarque also had one play produced, *Die letzte Station* (1956; *The Last Station*). Erich Maria Remarque died in Locarno, Switzerland, on September 25, 1970.

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REMBRANDT

Born: July 15, 1606

Leiden, Netherlands

Died: October 4, 1669

Netherlands

Dutch artist

Rembrandt was one of the most important artists of the great age of Dutch painting. In range, originality, and expressive power, his large production of paintings, drawings, and etchings has never been surpassed.

Childhood

Rembrandt Harmensz van Rijn was born in Leiden, Netherlands, on July 15, 1606, next to the last of the nine or more children of a miller, Harmen Gerritsz van Rijn, and a baker's daughter, Cornelia Neeltgen Willemsdr. van Zuytbroeck. For seven years Rembrandt was a student at the Latin school, and then, in 1620, he enrolled at Leiden University at the age of thirteen. After only a few months, however, he left to pursue his true passion—painting. He was an apprentice (a person working to learn a skill) for three years to the painter Jacob Isaacs van Swanenburgh, who had studied in Italy.

In 1624 Rembrandt went to Amsterdam to work with Pieter Lastman, a painter of bib-

lical, mythological, and historical scenes. After Lastman's death in 1633, Rembrandt continued to use his teacher's subjects and motifs (dominant themes). It was Lastman's ability to tell a story visually that impressed his youthful pupil. The earliest known works by Rembrandt, beginning with the *Stoning of St. Stephen* (1625), show an only partially successful imitation of Lastman's style, applied to scenes in which a number of figures are involved in a dramatic action.

By 1625 Rembrandt was working independently in Leiden. He was closely associated at this time with Jan Lievens (1607–1674), also a student of Lastman's. The two young men worked so similarly that even in their own lifetime there was doubt as to which of them was responsible for a particular painting. They used the same models and even worked on each other's pictures.

By 1631 Rembrandt was ready to compete with the accomplished portrait painters of Amsterdam. His portrait of the Amsterdam merchant Nicolaes Ruts (1631) is an amazing likeness executed with a degree of assurance that makes it clear why its author was in demand as a portraitist (an artist who draws or paints a person, usually the head and shoulders).

Early Amsterdam years

Around 1631 or 1632 Rembrandt moved to Amsterdam, where he had already achieved some recognition as a portraitist. Both his career and his personal life prospered. After an engagement of more than a year, he married a well-to-do young woman, Saskia van Uijlenburgh. In 1639 the young couple set themselves up in a fine house in the Breestraat, now maintained as a museum, the Rembrandthuis. Like many wealthy men

of his time, Rembrandt soon began to collect works of art, armor, costumes, and curiosities (unusual trinkets) from far places. He used some of these objects as props in his paintings and etchings (images that are the result of transferring an image off a metal plate onto paper with the use of chemicals).

Rembrandt's works of the mid-1630s were his most baroque, an elaborate style developed in the sixteenth century; indeed he seemed to be purposefully challenging the enormous reputation of painter Peter Paul Rubens (1577–1640). This is most expressed in the scenes from the *Passion of Christ* (1633–1639). The etching *Angel Appearing to the Shepherds* (1634) shows how the same drama and excitement, the combination of fine detail with a grand new sweep based largely on bringing together the composition through light and shadow, and the choice of the crucial moment—all characteristic of Rembrandt's baroque style—showed in his graphic works as well as his paintings in this period.

Middle period

One of Rembrandt's largest and most famous paintings is the group portrait known since the mid-eighteenth century as the *Night Watch*. This is, in fact, not a night scene at all, and it is correctly titled the *Militia Company of Captain Frans Banning Cocq*. The painting was unfortunately cut down in the eighteenth century. There is no foundation at all for the legend that Captain Cocq and his company were unhappy with their painting and that this failure began a decline in Rembrandt's fortunes that lasted until the end of his life. In fact, there is considerable evidence that the picture was highly praised from the start.



Rembrandt.

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Such difficulties as Rembrandt had were not caused by any rejection of his work.

Having had three children who died in infancy, Saskia gave birth to a fourth child, Titus, in September 1641. In June 1642 Saskia died. Geertge Dirckx then entered Rembrandt's household in order to take care of Titus. Hendrickje Stoffels, who is first mentioned in connection with Rembrandt in 1649, remained with him until her death in 1663. She left a daughter, Cornelia, who had been born to them in 1654.

About 1640 Rembrandt developed a new interest in landscape which lasted through the next two decades. A series of

drawings and etchings show keen observation of nature, great originality in composing, and marvelous economy. The etched *View of Amsterdam* (c.1640) influenced the landscape paintings of Jacob van Ruisdael (c.1628–1682). The tiny painting *Winter Landscape* (1646) has all the earmarks of having been painted from life, on the spot. This would be a rare case in seventeenth-century Dutch landscape, which usually was painted in the studio from sketches.

Later years

The first Anglo-Dutch War (1652–54; when England battled the Dutch Republic) may have played a part in Rembrandt's financial difficulties, of which there is evidence from 1653 on. All of his prized possessions were sold at auction, beginning in December 1657, and three years later Rembrandt, Titus, and Hendrickje moved to a smaller house.

In 1652 a Sicilian nobleman who was a discerning (selective and shrewd) collector commissioned a painting from Rembrandt. If the painting was satisfactory, two more were to be ordered. *Aristotle Contemplating a Bust of Homer* was completed in 1653 and shipped off to Sicily, and the two additional pictures were sent in 1661. The meaning of the *Aristotle* is not yet fully understood, but its quality is unquestionable.

Rembrandt's *Self-Portrait* (1658) shows the aging artist seated squarely before us, meeting our eyes with forthright gaze, and wearing a fantastic costume whose sharp horizontals and verticals stress the composition based on right angles that best represents this period. A number of admirable etched portraits also date from this time, as well as etchings of religious subjects, such as the impres-

sive *Ecce homo* (1655), which reflects an engraving made in 1510 by the great Dutch graphic artist Lucas van Leyden (1494–1533).

Later years

In 1660 and 1661 Rembrandt painted an enormous canvas for the splendid new town hall in Amsterdam. It was the *Conspiracy of the Batavians*, or the *Oath of Julius Civilis*, known to us through the remaining fragment and a pen-and-wash drawing of the entire composition.

Hendrickje died in 1663. In September 1668 Titus died as well. The lonely Rembrandt continued to paint. His last *Self-Portrait* is dated 1669. When he died in Amsterdam, on October 4, 1669, a painting, *Simeon with the Christ Child in the Temple*, was left unfinished on his easel.

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JANET
RENO

Born: July 21, 1938

Miami, Florida

American attorney general

Janet Reno was the seventy-fifth attorney general of the United States and the first woman ever to serve as attorney general, the nation's top law-enforcement job. She sought new frontiers for the Justice Department, which is led by the attorney general and is a powerful force for creating social change.

A Florida family

Reno was born on July 21, 1938, in Miami, Florida. The first of four children of journalists Henry and Jane Reno, she grew up in South Dade County, Florida. Her father, a Danish immigrant, wrote for the *Miami Herald* for forty-three years. As a police reporter, covering news of the police department and local crime, he became friends with judges and law enforcement personnel. This world became familiar to Reno at an early age. Her mother, a reporter for the *Miami News*, is remembered as an offbeat intellectual who wrestled alligators, read poetry, and befriended the Seminole Indians. She built with her own hands the Reno family home on the edge of Florida's swampy Everglades region.

Growing up near the Everglades, Reno developed a love of the outdoors. She was fond of canoeing, camping, and athletics. She imagined she might become a baseball player, a doctor, or a marine biologist. As an adult, however, her ambitions turned toward matters of justice and law.

Becoming a lawyer

After graduating from high school, Reno attended Cornell University, earning a degree in chemistry in 1960. Following Cornell she enrolled at Harvard University Law School, becoming one of only sixteen women in a class of five hundred. The legal profession

was full of obstacles for women in those times, and in 1962 Reno was denied a summer job at a well-known Miami law firm "because she was a woman." The next year, however, she entered the legal profession with her law degree in hand.

From 1963 to 1971 Reno worked as a lawyer for two Miami law firms. In 1971 she gained political experience when she joined the staff of the Judiciary Committee of the Florida House of Representatives. In the spring of 1973 she provided legal assistance to the Florida Senate on a project to revise the state's system of rules and regulations for criminal procedures. These experiences were followed by a job as assistant state attorney for the Eleventh Judiciary Circuit of Florida. She worked for the Judiciary Circuit (the term refers to state court activities within a particular district) from 1973 to 1976.

In 1978 Reno was appointed as state attorney for Dade County. This made her the first woman ever named to the position of top prosecutor for a county in Florida. Reno held the position for fifteen years until she was nominated as U.S. attorney general by President Bill Clinton (1946–) in 1993.

Dade County's top lawyer

As Dade County prosecutor, Reno was the top lawyer responsible for prosecuting and winning cases on behalf of the county and its people. She was criticized for early failures, but later her successes in prosecuting violent crimes, and her fearlessness in dealing with Miami's crime problem, helped win her a reputation as a tough prosecutor.

During this time, Reno made juvenile justice a focus of her work. She became



Janet Reno.

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known for her attempts to find alternatives to the imprisonment of young people. She also tried to find ways that the state could deal with troubled youth at the earliest possible age. She stressed the links between children experiencing care and love and the prevention of crime. She looked for opportunities to fight crime by building resources for children and education.

National agenda

On March 12, 1993, Reno was confirmed as U.S. attorney general by the U.S. Senate. In this position she saw to the enforcement of national policies on crime,

race relations, immigration, corruption, and other legal issues affecting many aspects of American life. In the area of crime and law enforcement, she focused on broad programs involving efforts to help criminals reform and to provide treatment for drug offenders as a means of stopping crime. She also supported gun control and the hiring of additional police. In addition, Reno argued for broad reforms to provide ordinary citizens with greater access to the courts and justice system. She stressed the importance of addressing the root causes of crime and violence.

The heart of Reno's agenda involved programs for children. As attorney general she pushed for reforms that would provide assistance to troubled youths as early as possible, believing in the possibilities for turning children away from careers in crime. Reno's other concerns included aggressive civil rights enforcement, ending discrimination (unequal treatment) based on sexual preferences, and tougher enforcement of environmental laws. The basic challenge she faced in her work involved translating these broad social goals into real and effective changes in law enforcement and the justice system.

A controversial figure

Reno's commitment was admired by many during her term as attorney general. However, she was also a controversial figure. Reno was severely criticized for the Justice Department's actions during a crisis in Waco, Texas, in 1993, when an extreme religious sect called the Branch Davidians became involved in a standoff with law enforcement officials. After negotiations between the two sides broke down, federal agents stormed the grounds and building in which the Branch

Davidians were housed, and dozens of the sect's members died after setting the building on fire. Reno also became a target of Republicans in Congress who accused her of failing to investigate vigorously when members of the Clinton administration were charged with illegal practices. At the same time, some members of the Clinton administration felt that Reno was too quick to cave in to Republican demands. Although President Clinton reappointed Reno to a second term in 1996, it was reported that he did so reluctantly.

In 2000 Reno again drew fire over her handling of the case of Elian Gonzalez Brotons, a six-year-old refugee who was living with relatives in Miami after his mother drowned while bringing him by boat to Florida from Cuba. After months of negotiations and efforts to resolve his case in court, Reno ordered federal agents to seize the boy from his relatives' home and return him to his father, who was living in Cuba. Many Cuban Americans, especially in Miami, were outraged by Reno's order.

Despite this controversy, Reno returned to Florida with political ambitions in 2001, when her term as attorney general ended. In September 2001 she announced that she would run as a Democrat for governor of the state, but she lost in a close primary race to attorney Bill McBride on September 10, 2002.

Battling Parkinson's

Reno suffers from Parkinson's disease, an illness that attacks the nervous system. As a highly visible and active public figure combating a severe illness, she has inspired others who live with Parkinson's and other serious diseases. Her achievements as a woman in the male-dominated legal field were also honored

when she was inducted into the National Women's Hall of Fame in October 2000.

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PIERRE AUGUSTE RENOIR

Born: February 25, 1841

Limoges, France

Died: December 3, 1919

Cagnes-sur-Mer, France

French painter

The French painter Pierre Auguste Renoir was one of the central figures of the impressionist movement (a French art movement of the second half of the nineteenth century whose members sought in their works to represent the first impression of an object upon the viewer). His work is characterized by a richness of feeling and a warmth of response to the world and to the people in it.

Early life

Pierre Auguste Renoir was born in Limoges, France, on February 25, 1841, the sixth of Léonard Renoir and Marguerite Merlet's seven children. His father was a tailor, and his mother was a dressmaker. His family moved to Paris,



Pierre Auguste Renoir.

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France, in 1844. Because he showed a remarkable talent for drawing, Renoir became an apprentice (one who works for someone in order to learn his or her trade) in a porcelain factory, where he painted plates. Later, after the factory had gone out of business, he worked for his older brother, decorating fans. Throughout these early years Renoir made frequent visits to the Louvre (the world's largest and most famous art museum, located in Paris), where he studied the art of earlier French masters, particularly those of the eighteenth century—Antoine Watteau (1684–1721), François Boucher (1703–1770), and Jean Honoré Fragonard (1732–1806). His deep respect for these artists influenced his own painting throughout his career.

Early career

In 1862 Renoir decided to study painting seriously and entered the studio of the painter Charles Gleyre, where he met other artists such as Claude Monet (1840–1926), Alfred Sisley (1839–1899), and Jean Frédéric Bazille (1841–1870). During the next six years Renoir's art showed the influence of Gustave Courbet (1819–1877) and Édouard Manet (1832–1883), the two most innovative (doing things in a new way) painters of the 1850s and 1860s. Courbet's influence is especially evident in the bold *Diane Chasseresse* (1867), while Manet's influence can be seen in the flat tones of *Alfred Sisley and His Wife* (1868). Still, both paintings reveal a sense of intimacy (closeness) that is characteristic of Renoir's personal style.

The 1860s were difficult years for Renoir. At times he was too poor to buy paints or canvas, and the Salons (exhibitions, or displays) of 1866 and 1867 rejected his works. The following year the Salon accepted his painting *Lise*, a portrait (picture of a person, especially their face) of his girlfriend, Lise Tréhot. He continued to develop his work and to study the paintings of other artists of the day—not only Courbet and Manet, but Camille Corot (1796–1875) and Eugène Delacroix (1798–1863) as well. Renoir's debt to Delacroix is apparent in the lush (appealing to the senses) *Odalisque* (1870).

Renoir and impressionism

A revolution was beginning in French painting. A number of young painters began to rebel against the traditions of Western painting and went directly to nature for their inspiration and into the actual society of which they were a part. As a result, their works revealed a look of freshness that in

many ways departed from the look of Old Master painting. The new art displayed bright light and color instead of the solemn browns and blacks of previous painting. These qualities, among others, signaled the beginning of impressionist art.

In 1869 Renoir and Monet worked together at La Grenouillère, a bathing spot on the river Seine. Both artists became interested in painting light and water. According to Phoebe Pool (1967), this was a key moment in the development of impressionism, for it “was there that Renoir and Monet made their discovery that shadows are not brown or black but are coloured by their surroundings, and that the ‘local colour’ of an object is modified by the light in which it is seen, by reflections from other objects and by contrast with juxtaposed [placed side by side] colours.”

The styles of Renoir and Monet were almost identical at this time, a sign of the dedication with which they pursued and shared their new discoveries. During the 1870s they continued to work together at times, although their styles generally developed in more personal directions. In 1874 Renoir participated in the first impressionist exhibition; his works included the *Opera Box*. Of all the impressionists, Renoir most thoroughly adapted the new style to the great tradition of figure painting.

Although the impressionist exhibitions were the targets of much public scorn during the 1870s, Renoir's popularity gradually increased during this time. He became a friend of Caillebotte, one of the first supporters of the impressionists, and he was also backed by several art dealers and collectors. The artist's connection with these individuals is documented by a number of handsome

portraits, for instance, *Madame Charpentier and Her Children* (1878). In the 1870s Renoir also produced some of his most celebrated impressionist scenes, including the *Swing* and the *Moulin de la Galette* (both 1876). These works show men and women together, openly and casually enjoying a society bathed in warm sunlight. Figures blend softly into one another and into their surrounding space. These paintings are pleasurable and full of human feeling.

Renoir's “dry” period

During the 1880s Renoir began to separate himself from the impressionists, largely because he became unhappy with the direction the new style was taking in his own hands. In paintings like the *Luncheon of the Boating Party* (1880–81), he felt that his style was becoming too loose and that forms were becoming less distinct. As a result, he looked to the past for a fresh inspiration. In 1881 he traveled to Italy and was particularly impressed by the art of Raphael (1483–1520).

During the next six years Renoir's paintings became increasingly dry: he began to draw in a tight, classical manner, carefully outlining his figures in an effort to give them increased clarity. The works from this period, such as the *Umbrellas* (1883) and the *Grandes baigneuses* (1884–87), are generally considered the least successful of Renoir's mature expressions.

Late career

By the end of the 1880s Renoir had passed through his dry period. His late work is truly remarkable: a glorious outpouring of nude figures, beautiful young girls, and lush landscapes. Examples of this style include the *Music Lesson* (1891), *Young Girl Reading* (1892), and *Sleeping*

Bather (1897). In many ways, the generosity of feeling in these paintings expands on the achievements of his great work in the 1870s.

Renoir's health declined severely in his later years. In 1903 he suffered his first attack of arthritis (a painful swelling of the joints) and settled for the winter at Cagnes-sur-Mer, France. The arthritis made painting painful and often impossible. Still, he continued to work, at times with a brush tied to his crippled hand. Renoir died at Cagnes-sur-Mer on December 3, 1919, but not before an experience of supreme triumph: the state had purchased his portrait *Madame Georges Charpentier* (1877), and he traveled to Paris in August to see it hanging in the Louvre.

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PAUL REVERE

Born: January 1, 1735

Boston, Massachusetts

Died: May 10, 1818

Boston, Massachusetts

American patriot, silversmith, and engraver

Paul Revere is remembered for his ride to warn fellow American patriots of a planned British attack before the Revolutionary War (1775–83), the war fought by Americans to gain independence from England. He was also a fine silversmith (a person who makes objects out of silver) and a master engraver (a person who cuts designs onto things such as metal or wood).

Learning a trade

Paul Revere was born on January 1, 1735, in Boston, Massachusetts. He was the son of Apollos De Revoire, a French Huguenot (member of the Protestant faith) who had come to Boston at the age of thirteen to apprentice (a person who works for another to learn a trade) in the shop of a silversmith. Once Revoire had established his own business, he changed his name to the English spelling Revere.

Paul Revere was the third of twelve children and the oldest of his father's sons to survive into adulthood. As a young man, he studied at the North Writing School in Boston. As a teenager, he learned the art of gold and silversmithing from his father. With help from his mother, he began running the Revere family silver shop at age nineteen, after his father died. On August 17, 1757, he married Sarah Orne and eventually fathered eight children.

As early as 1765, Revere began to experiment with engraving on copper and produced several portraits and a songbook. He was popular as a source for engraved items such as bookplates, seals (stamps with raised designs that could make a print on another substance), and coats of arms (designs that indicated a family line).

Revere also began to fashion engravings that were anti-British. In 1768 he made one of the most famous pieces of silver of the American colonial era—a bowl created at the request of the fifteen Sons of Liberty. The Sons of Liberty were organizations formed in order to protest the 1765 Stamp Act, a taxation on printed materials imposed by the British that the Americans considered unjust. The bowl that Revere created was engraved to honor the “glorious Ninety-two Members of the Honorable House of Representatives of the Massachusetts Bay” who had refused to withdraw a letter they had sent to the other colonies protesting the Townshend Acts (another measure imposed by the British). Revere’s extraordinary skill also extended to his carving picture frames for the painter John Singleton Copley (1738–1815). Copley painted a famous portrait of Revere, shown in shirt sleeves and holding a silver teapot.



Paul Revere.

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Revere’s ride

Revere became a trusted messenger for the Massachusetts Committee of Safety, an organization set up to resist the British. He foresaw an attack by the British troops against the location of military supplies in Concord, Massachusetts, and arranged a signal to warn the patriots in Charlestown, Massachusetts. During the late evening of April 18, 1775, the chairman of the Committee of Safety told him that the British were going to march to Concord. Revere signaled by hanging two lanterns in the tower of Boston’s North Church. This showed that the British were approaching “by sea,” that is, by way of the Charles River. He crossed the river, borrowed a horse in Charlestown, and started for Concord. Arriving in Lexington, Massachusetts, at midnight, he awakened American rebels John Hancock (1737–1793) and Samuel

Adams (1722–1803), allowing the two men to flee to safety.

Revere was captured that night by the British, but he persuaded his captors that the whole countryside was aroused to fight, and they freed him. He returned to Lexington, where he saw the first shot fired in the first battle of the Revolutionary War (1776). This ride and series of events were made legendary by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807–1882) in the poem “Paul Revere’s Ride.”

A master craftsman

After the Revolutionary War Revere remained in Boston, where he created

objects in silver for distinguished members of local society. He died in Boston on May 10, 1818. Today, he is still remembered as a craftsman in silver, as well as a master of engraving. An on-the-spot reporter, he recorded the events leading up to and during the revolution with great accuracy. He engraved what he saw on metal plates, which were then used to create prints on paper that were highly popular with the people of Boston.

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reader's guide

U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

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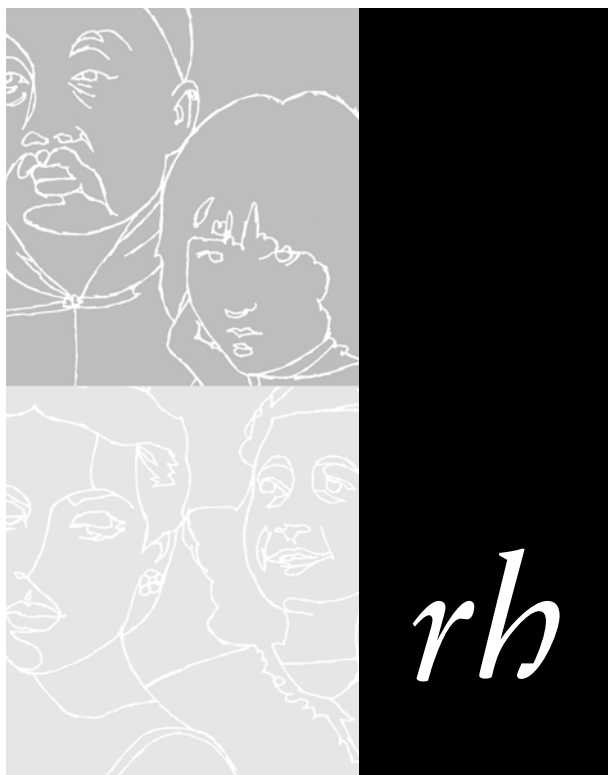
Special thanks

Much appreciation goes to Mary Alice Anderson, media specialist at Winona Middle School in Winona, Minnesota, and Nina Levine, library media specialist at Blue Mountain Middle School in Cortlandt Manor, New York, for their assistance in developing the entry list. Many thanks also go to the following people for their important editorial contri-

butions: Taryn Benbow-Pfalzgraf (proofreading), Jodi Essey-Stapleton (copyediting and proofing), Margaret Haerens (proofreading), Courtney Mroch (copyediting), and Theresa Murray (copyediting and indexing). Special gratitude goes to Linda Mahoney at LM Design for her excellent typesetting work and her flexible attitude.

Comments and suggestions

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CECIL RHODES

Born: July 5, 1853

Bishop's Stortford, England

Died: March 26, 1902

Muizenberg, South Africa

English businessman and imperialist

The English businessman and financier Cecil Rhodes founded the modern diamond industry and controlled the British South Africa Company, which acquired Rhodesia and Zambia as British territories. He was also a noted philanthropist (working for charity) and founded the Rhodes scholarships.

Early life

Cecil John Rhodes was born on July 5, 1853, at Bishop's Stortford, England, one of nine sons of the parish vicar (priest). While his brothers were sent off to attend better schools, Cecil's poor health forced him to stay at home and attend the local grammar school. Instead of attending college, sixteen-year-old Cecil was sent to South Africa to work on a cotton farm. Arriving in October 1870, he grew cotton with his brother Herbert in Natal, South Africa, a harsh environment. Soon the brothers learned that growing cotton was no way to build a fortune and by 1871 "diamond fever" was sweeping the region with promises of fame and fortune. The two brothers soon left Natal for the newly developed diamond



Cecil Rhodes.

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field at Kimberley, South Africa, an even less inviting environment.

In the 1870s Rhodes laid the foundation for his later massive fortune by working an open-pit mine where he personally supervised his workers and even sorted diamonds himself. The hard work would pay off as Rhodes developed a moderate fortune by investing in diamond claims, initiating mining techniques, and in 1880 forming the De Beers Mining Company.

In 1873 Rhodes returned to England to attend Oxford University. During his education, Rhodes split his time between South

Africa and Oxford, where he did not fit in socially but finally earned a bachelor of arts degree in 1881.

Birth of an empire

During the mid-1870s, Rhodes spent six months alone, wandering the unsettled plains of Transvaal, South Africa. There, he developed his philosophies on British Imperialism, where the British Empire rules over its foreign colonies. These philosophies consisted of a “dream” where a brotherhood of elite Anglo-Saxons (whites) would occupy all of Africa, the Holy Land in the Middle East, and other parts of the world. After a serious heart attack in 1877, Rhodes revealed his ideas of British Imperialism when he made his first will. In it, Rhodes called for the settlement of his as-yet-unearned fortune to found a secret society that would extend British rule throughout the world and colonize most parts of it with British settlers, leading to the “ultimate recovery of the United States of America” by the British Empire.

From 1880 to 1895 Rhodes’s star rose steadily. Basic to this rise was his successful struggle to take control of the rival diamond interests of Barnie Barnato, with whom he partnered in 1888 to form De Beers Consolidated Mines, a company whose extraordinary powers led to acquiring lands for the purpose of extending the British Empire. With his brother Frank he also formed Goldfields of South Africa, with several large mines in the Transvaal.

Entering politics

During this same time Rhodes built a career in politics. He was elected to the Cape Parliament in 1880, the governing body of

South Africa. In Parliament, Rhodes succeeded in focusing attention on the Transvaal and German expansion so as to secure British control of Bechuanaland by 1885. In 1888 Rhodes secured mining grants from Lobengula, King of the Ndebele, which by highly stretched interpretations gave Rhodes a claim to what became Rhodesia. In 1889 Rhodes persuaded the British government to grant a charter (authority from the British throne) to form the British South Africa Company, which in 1890 put white settlers into Lobengula's territories and founded Salisbury and other towns. This sparked conflict with the Ndebele, but they were crushed by British forces in the war of 1893.

By this time Rhodes controlled the politics of Britain's Cape Colony. In July 1890 he became premier of the Cape with the support of the English-speaking white and nonwhite voters and the Afrikaners (descendants of the Dutch settlers of South Africa). Rhodes won their support by creating a "Bond" where some twenty-five thousand shares of the British South Africa Company were distributed among them. His policy was to aim for the creation of a South African federation (union of states) under the British flag, and he gained the trust of the Afrikaners by restricting the Africans' educational and property qualifications in 1892 and setting up a new system of "native administration" in 1894.

Later career

At the end of 1895 Rhodes's fortunes took a disastrous turn. In poor health and anxious to hurry his dream of a South African federation, he organized a plot against the Boer government of the Transvaal, which was run by the Dutch settlers. Through his min-

ing company, arms and ammunition were smuggled into Johannesburg, South Africa, to be used for a revolution by "outlanders," mainly British. A strip of land on the borders of the Transvaal was awarded to the chartered company by Joseph Chamberlain (1836–1914), the British colonial secretary. Leander Jameson, administrator of Rhodesia, was stationed there with company troops. The Johannesburg plotters did not rebel but Jameson, however, rode in on December 27, 1895, and was captured. As a result, Rhodes had to resign his premiership in January 1896. Thereafter he concentrated on developing Rhodesia and especially in extending the railway, which he dreamed would one day reach Cairo, Egypt.

When the Anglo-Boer War broke out in October 1899, Rhodes hurried to Kimberley, which the Boers surrounded a few days later. It was not relieved until February 16, 1900, during which time Rhodes had been active in organizing defense and sanitation. His health was worsened by the takeover, and after traveling in Europe he returned to the Cape in February 1902, where he died at Muizenberg, South Africa, on March 26.

In death, Rhodes's fortune allowed him to leave behind a legacy that is still relevant today. Rhodes left six million pounds, most of which went to Oxford University to establish the Rhodes scholarships to provide places at Oxford for students from the United States, the British colonies, and Germany. Land was also left to eventually provide for a university in Rhodesia.

For More Information

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CONDOLEEZZA RICE

Born: November 14, 1954

Birmingham, Alabama

*African American national security advisor
and educator*

Condoleezza Rice is a leading expert on the politics and military of Eastern Europe, the former Soviet Union, and other areas of the world. In 2001 President George W. Bush (1946–) named Rice his national security advisor, a key advisor and player in foreign affairs. She became the first African American and the first woman ever to hold the position.

Childhood talents

Condoleezza Rice was born in Birmingham, Alabama, on November 14, 1954. Condi, as she was known to her friends, was born into a family of educators. Both of her parents were teachers. In fact, Rice traces her career choice to her family's political discussions when she was growing up. Her parents also encouraged academic achievement, telling her she could "do and be whatever

[she] wanted," Rice told *Ebony* magazine. She succeeded in many activities from an early age. She took piano lessons at three years old and was playing Bach and Beethoven before her feet reached the pedals. She studied figure skating, French, and Spanish. She entered the eighth grade at only eleven years of age, and graduated from high school at age fifteen.

Rice then entered the University of Denver, first studying piano but later switching to political science when she realized she would never be a great pianist. She graduated with high honors when she was nineteen. Later, she returned to the University of Denver to study international studies in graduate school, earning a doctorate degree.

Beginning an impressive career

In 1981 Rice started teaching political science at Stanford University in California. She focused on the politics of the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, publishing articles and addressing audiences on these subjects. Through her writing, teaching, and public speaking, she became well known as an expert on the politics of the Soviet Union. With Alexander Dallin, she wrote *Uncertain Allegiance: The Soviet Union and the Czechoslovak Army* (1984). With Phillip Zelikow, she wrote *The Gorbachev Era* (1986). In 1986 she also served as special assistant to the Joint Chiefs of Staff, a group of leaders in the U.S. military who advise the president in matters of war. The following year she traveled to Bulgaria to speak to Soviet representatives about controlling the spread of weapons.

In 1989 Rice was named director of Soviet and East European affairs on the National Security Council. In this position,

she analyzed and explained to President George Bush (1924–) the events of international importance occurring in the region. She helped Bush prepare for summit meetings with then-Soviet president Mikhail Gorbachev (1931–) and other top officials.

The purpose of the meetings was to create a plan for peace around the world. Much of the talk was about controlling the spread of weapons. The leaders also discussed expanding trade and the independence movements in many of the Soviet Union republics. As an advisor for Bush, Rice had important knowledge to provide about the politics and military abilities in that region. This work was exciting but challenging for her. In an interview with *San Francisco: The Magazine*, she said that the hardest part was remaining objective and “keeping the analyst in me separate from my political views.”

Rice told *Ebony* magazine it was a “truly amazing time to be working in the White House,” because so much was changing in the Eastern-bloc countries. The Berlin Wall, which was erected between East and West Berlin by the Communist government of East Germany in 1961, had come down, allowing citizens of the East to move freely to the West. Shortly thereafter, the world witnessed the fall of the Soviet Union.

Return to Stanford

In 1991 Rice left Washington to return to academic life at Stanford University in California. Her expertise had been sought and her presence felt by many. At one point, the governor of California suggested that she run for a Senate seat in that state, but she declined. The *New York Times* frequently sought her opinion and commentary on for-



Condoleezza Rice.

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eign affairs. She also contributed editorials and work to *Time* magazine and newspapers such as the *Los Angeles Times*. She continues to publish her scholarly work.

In 1991 the thirty-seven-year-old Rice was appointed by the governor of California to a special committee to draw new state legislative and congressional districts in the state. She was the youngest member chosen. The governor told the *Los Angeles Times* that all the members shared certain characteristics. “All are distinguished scholars. All are leaders in their fields, known for [fairness] and devoted to the truth.” Other people agreed with this opinion of Rice. In 1991 two

major companies elected Rice to their boards of directors. She was named provost of Stanford, a very high-ranking position.

Trusted advisor in peace and war

After many years back in university life, Rice was asked to help George W. Bush run for president in 2000. When he was elected, he named her national security advisor. She was chosen for her vast experience and expertise but also because she was a trusted friend of George W. Bush. This combination of expertise and exceptional trust became especially important during the fall of 2001.

Following the attacks of September 11, 2001, Rice became more important at the national and international levels. In the war in Afghanistan, Rice was a strong supporter of President Bush's actions and a trusted advisor in the conflict. In press conferences and on television news programs, she denounced the actions of the Taliban, Osama bin Laden (1957–), and the terrorist group al-Qaida. In Washington on November 8, she said, "What we are engaged in now is an act of self-defense to try to root out al-Qaida, to try to deny them safe harbor." She also has spoken forcefully about the U.S. military action and policies to fight the War on Terror.

Life as a successful minority

Rice has been fortunate, but she has also encountered her share of racism (a dislike or disrespect of someone solely because of the color of his or her skin). In high school she took difficult classes and had high grades. Her counselor, though, told her she was not suited for college. Rice told *Ebony* magazine that she did not do very well on an SAT

exam, which is used for applying to colleges. However, she also recalled, "I remember thinking that the odd thing about it was that [the counselor] had not bothered to check my record. I was a straight-A student in all advanced courses. . . . I was a figure skater and a piano student. That none of that occurred to her I think was a [quiet] form of racism. It was the problem of low expectations [for African Americans]."

In 1990 an unfortunate public incident occurred at the San Francisco airport. Rice was with a group of representatives from the Soviet Union. She was wearing the correct White House identification, yet a security person ordered her to stand behind the security lines. When she tried to explain that she was with the group, he shoved her. Newspapers made a big deal of the event. They wondered if the security person was being racist. Rice, however, told *Ebony* magazine that she did not feel any racial anger from him, "just that he was rude."

Rice has also come across her share of sexism (a dislike or disrespect of someone solely because of his or her gender). When people say sexist things to her, she has said she sometimes responds by talking about other powerful women. "Haven't they heard of [former prime minister of England] Margaret Thatcher, [former prime minister of India] Indira Gandhi, or Cleopatra [the Queen of Egypt] for that matter?" she said to *Jet* magazine. She told *Ebony* magazine that sexism "usually comes in the line of 'How'd you end up doing this?'" Rice's most successful weapon against racism and sexism has been her own intelligence and ability.

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ARMAND-JEAN DU PLESSIS DE RICHELIEU

Born: September 9, 1585

Paris, France

Died: December 4, 1642

Paris, France

French cardinal and statesman

Cardinal Richelieu devoted himself to securing French leadership in Europe and increasing King Louis XIII's (1601–1643) power within France.

Early life

Armand-Jean du Plessis de Richelieu was born on September 9, 1585, in Paris, fourth of the five children of François du Plessis, the lord of Richelieu, and Suzanne de La Porte. His father was the head of King Henry III's (1551–1589) central administration and also served Henry IV (1553–1610) before dying in 1590 of a fever. His mother was forced to move the family to the home of her mother-in-law. Armand, who throughout his life suf-

fered from different illnesses, returned to Paris to study at the College de Navarre, from which he went on to a military academy. The family planned for his brother Alphonse to become bishop of Luçon, France, but Alphonse decided to become a monk. Because it would help the family, Armand volunteered to take his brother's place, and in 1603 he began studying religion. He went to Rome in 1607 and was named a bishop by the pope. He returned to Paris and obtained his degree in theology (religious studies).

Career as bishop

In 1608 Richelieu arrived in Luçon and began his duties as bishop. In 1614 he was elected as a representative of religion in the Estates General (the legislature). At the suggestion of Maria de' Medici (1573–1642), who was the head of a council that was ruling on behalf of her young son Louis XIII, Richelieu was chosen to speak at the last session of the Estates. He then went back to Luçon, but a year later returned to Paris and was appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs and war. He held the post for only five months before Louis XIII seized power in April 1617 and dismissed his mother's staff members. In 1618 Richelieu was ordered into exile in the city of Avignon, France.

Some of Louis XIII's advisers believed that Richelieu would be a calming influence on the king's mother, so the king recalled him in March 1619 and ordered him to resume serving her. Richelieu helped settle several disputes between the king and his mother. The queen mother wanted the king to help Richelieu become a cardinal; she hoped to control royal policy through the influence Richelieu would have as a member of the



Cardinal Richelieu.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

king's council. The resistance of the king and his ministers gradually crumbled; in September 1622 the pope appointed Richelieu a cardinal, and in April 1624 the king called Richelieu to his council.

Position as minister

Richelieu remained the king's principal minister until his death, and he was made a duke in 1631. He gradually built up in the council a group of men, his "creatures," who were loyal to him as well as to the king. These men kept him informed of possible threats against the king, giving him time to foil any takeover attempts. He also relied on his fam-

ily, which he extended by carefully arranging marriages of his nieces and cousins into great families. He made it clear that he was loyal to the king.

Many Catholics, including the queen mother, regarded Huguenots (French Protestants, who opposed many decisions made by the pope and placed less emphasis on ceremonies than Catholics did) as the enemy and insisted that they be dealt with. Richelieu agreed with them up to a point, taking over the Huguenot city of La Rochelle, France, and cooperating on a program of reforms. But he allowed the Huguenots to continue practicing their religion as long as they stayed loyal to the king, and his advice to Louis XIII on other matters caused the queen mother to finally break with Richelieu in 1630. The king then removed her people from his court.

Foreign policy

Richelieu wanted France to become the leading power in Europe. He knew that the country would eventually have to go to war with Spain, which at the time was a part of the Hapsburg empire (an empire that was made up of parts of the present-day countries of Austria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Croatia, and others). While he reorganized the French army and established a navy, Richelieu encouraged German resistance to the Hapsburg emperor in Vienna, figuring this would buy the French some time while the Hapsburg king in Spain focused his attention on controlling Germany. He also gave money to the Dutch Republic and the Swedish warrior king Gustavus Adolphus (Gustavus II; 1594–1632) to help them in their fight against the Hapsburgs. Eventually France was drawn into war, which was still

going on when Richelieu died on December 4, 1642, having served his country to the best of his ability.

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professor of political science and her mother was a counselor. Her parents encouraged Sally and her younger sister Karen to study hard and do their best, but allowed the children the freedom to develop at their own pace. In 1983 *Newsweek* quoted Dale B. Ride as saying, "We might have encouraged, but mostly we just let them explore."

Ride showed natural athletic ability as a youngster, often playing baseball and football with the neighborhood children. Although she liked all sports, tennis was her favorite. She had developed her tennis skills since the age of ten. Ride eventually ranked eighteenth on the national junior tennis circuit.

Student sets own agenda

Ride's tennis ability won her a partial scholarship to Westlake School for Girls, a prep school in Los Angeles. From her earliest years in school, Ride had gotten straight A grades. She did a lot of reading, often science fiction. However, sometimes she did not apply herself to her studies. In her junior year of high school she became interested in the study of physics, through the influence of her science teacher, Elizabeth Mommaerts.

After graduating from high school in 1968, Ride enrolled in the physics program at Swarthmore College, in Swarthmore, Pennsylvania. However, she continued to devote a large amount of time and energy to tennis and soon left college to work on her game full time. Tennis pro Billie Jean King (1943–) told Ride she had the talent to pursue a professional career in tennis.

Ride eventually decided not to pursue tennis. Instead, she returned to California as an undergraduate student at Stanford Univer-

SALLY RIDE

Born: May 26, 1951

Los Angeles, California

American astronaut and physicist

Sally Ride is best known as the first American woman sent into outer space, and she is also the youngest person ever sent into orbit. She has received numerous medals and honors for her work as an astronaut, and for her commitment to educating the young.

Early life

Sally Kristen Ride is the older of two daughters of Dale B. Ride and Carol Joyce (Anderson) Ride of Encino, California. She was born May 26, 1951. Her father was a



Sally Ride.

Courtesy of the U.S. National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

sity. She received a bachelor's degree in both physics and English literature in 1973. She also received her master's degree from Stanford in 1975. She continued work toward her doctoral degree in physics, astronomy, and astrophysics (the study of the physical elements that make up the universe) at Stanford and submitted her dissertation (a long essay written by a candidate for a doctoral degree) in 1978.

Into the wild blue yonder

At about the same time National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) was looking for young scientists to be "mis-

sion specialists" on space flights. Ride applied and was selected for space flight training in 1978. She was one of only thirty-five chosen from eight thousand applicants. As part of her training, Ride had to study basic science and math, meteorology (weather and climate), guidance, navigation, and computers. She trained for flying on a T-38 jet trainer and other simulators (devices that are modeled after real crafts to create similar sensations for training pilots).

Ride was selected as part of the ground-support crew for the second (November, 1981) and third (March, 1982) shuttle flights. Her duties included the role of "cap-com," or capsule communicator. The "cap-com" relays commands from the ground to the shuttle crew. These experiences prepared her to be an astronaut.

Before Ride's first shuttle flight, George W.S. Abbey, NASA's director of flight operations, described her as an ideal choice for the crew. He noted that she had "an unusual flair for solving difficult engineering problems" and that she was a "team player." On the seventh mission of the space shuttle *Challenger* (June 18 to June 24, 1983), Ride served as flight engineer. With John M. Fabian she launched communications satellites for Canada and Indonesia. They also conducted the first successful satellite deployment and retrieval in space using the shuttle's remote manipulator arm.

In this way, at thirty-one, Ride became the youngest person sent into orbit as well as the first American woman in space. Ride points to her fellow female astronauts with pride. She feels that since these women were chosen for training, Ride's own experience could not be dismissed as insignificant. That

had been the unfortunate fate of the first woman in orbit, the Soviet Union's Valentina Tereshkova.

Ride was also chosen for another *Challenger* flight led by Captain Crippen, October 5 through October 13, 1984. This time, the robot arm was used in some unusual ways. She performed "ice-busting" on the shuttle's exterior and readjusted a radar antenna. With this flight, Ride became the first American woman to make two space flights.

Response to the Challenger tragedy

Ride had been chosen for a third scheduled flight. Sadly, training was cut short in January 1986, when the space shuttle *Challenger* exploded in midair shortly after take-off. The twelve-foot rubber O-rings that serve as washers between steel segments of the rocket boosters failed under stress. The entire crew of seven was killed.

Ride was chosen for President Ronald Reagan's Rogers Commission, which investigated the explosion. Perhaps the most important recommendation the commission made was to include astronauts at management levels in NASA.

As leader of a task force on the future of the space program, Ride wrote *Leadership and America's Future in Space* in 1987. In her report she said that NASA should take environmental and international research goals into consideration. Ride said NASA has a duty to inform the public and capture the interest of youngsters. She cited a 1986 work that described the lack of math and science skills among American high school graduates. A mere 6 percent are fluent in these fields, compared to up to 90 percent in other nations.

Ride left NASA in 1987 to join Stanford's Center for International Security and Arms Control. Two years later she became physics professor at the University of California in San Diego (UCSD) and director of the California Space Institute. In the summer of 1999 Ride joined the board of Directors of Space.com, an Internet site devoted to news and information on the cosmos. She left that position a year later, to spend more time in science education.

Top priority: educating children

Ride has followed through on her commitment to science education. In her own high school years, she discovered how important it was to have a mentor (advisor). She felt so strongly about the positive influence Mommaerts had on her that she dedicated her first children's book to her former teacher. Ride coauthored two children's books, *To Space and Back*, and *Voyager*.

In 1998 Ride developed EarthKAM, an innovative project for studying natural phenomena (occurrences). This is a unique program for students in middle school through college. Students research a natural phenomenon on Earth and take pictures of it with digital cameras mounted in the crew cabins of NASA space shuttles. The pictures are then downloaded from the Internet into the classroom. Over ten thousand students from all over the United States participate in EarthKAM.

In 2001 Ride formed Imaginary Lines, a company dedicated to encouraging young women interested in the sciences. Through the Sally Ride Science Club, young women in the fourth through eighth grades will be able to network and hook up with mentors. To quote UCSD chancellor Robert Dynes in the

Los Angeles Times, August 29, 1999: "Sally's a hero at bringing the excitement of science into the classroom. Many children today never experience a full-blast spirit of discovery. Sally teaches kids to go for it. Flat out. That's the magic."

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Early career as a dancer and actress

Helene Berta Amalie Riefenstahl was born in Berlin, Germany, on August 22, 1902. Her father, Alfred Riefenstahl, who owned a plumbing firm, and her only brother, Heinz, died in World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). As a child she enjoyed reading, painting, and dancing. Early on she decided to become a dancer and received thorough training, both in traditional Russian ballet and in modern dance with Mary Wigman (1886–1973). By 1920 Riefenstahl was a successful dancer touring cities such as Munich, Dresden, and Frankfurt, Germany; Prague, Czechoslovakia; and Zurich, Switzerland.

By 1924 Riefenstahl's dance career was over after she suffered a serious knee injury. It was during her recovery period that her life would change forever when she saw one of the popular mountain films of Arnold Fanck. With characteristic determination and energy she set out to meet Fanck and talk him into offering her an acting role in his *Der heilige Berg* (*The Holy Mountain*, 1926). The film was well-received, and Riefenstahl made up her mind to stay with the relatively new medium of motion pictures. Over the next seven years she made five more films with Fanck. In Fanck's films Riefenstahl was often the only woman in a crew of rugged men who were devoted to adding the beauty and dangers of the still untouched high mountains onto their action-filled adventure films. Not only did she learn to climb and ski well, she also absorbed all she could about camera work, directing, and editing.

LENI RIEFENSTAHL

Born: August 22, 1902

Berlin, Germany

German film director

The German film director Leni Riefenstahl achieved fame and notoriety for her film *Triumph of the Will*, which critics believed to be propaganda, or material created to spread beliefs, of Adolf Hitler's (1889–1945) army, the Third Reich.

Eventually Riefenstahl dreamed up a different kind of mountain film, more romantic and mystical, in which a woman, played by herself, would be the central character and which she herself would direct. *Das blaue Licht* (*The Blue Light*, 1932) was based on a mountain legend and was shot in remote parts of the Tessin and the Dolomite mountains in northern Italy. It demanded—and received—a great deal of dedication from those involved, many of whom were former associates of Fanck's who continued to work with Riefenstahl on other films. *The Blue Light* won praise overseas, where it received the silver medal at the 1932 Biennale in Venice, Italy, and at home, where it also attracted the attention of Adolf Hitler.

Films for the Third Reich

When Adolf Hitler came to power in 1933 he asked Riefenstahl to film that year's Nazi Party (Hitler's political party) rally in Nuremberg, Germany. *Sieg des Glaubens* (*Victory of Faith*, 1933) has been lost; presumably it was destroyed because it showed party members who were soon afterwards killed by Hitler. Hitler then invited Riefenstahl to do the 1934 rally as well, a task she claimed to have accepted only after a second "invitation" and the promise of total artistic freedom.

Triumph des Willens (*Triumph of the Will*, 1935) is considered by many to be the propaganda film of all times. (Later, Riefenstahl maintained she intended the movie to be a documentary.) Carefully edited from over sixty hours of film by herself, with concern for rhythm and variety rather than chronological (order of time) accuracy, it empha-



Leni Riefenstahl.

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sized the fellowship of the Nazi Party, the unity of the German people, and the greatness of their leader who, through composition, cutting, and special camera angles, was given mythical dimensions.

Triumph of the Will made a powerful appeal to the irrational, emotional side of the viewer, particularly in Germany at the time. Not surprisingly, the film was awarded the German Film Prize for 1935. But it was also given the International Grand Prix at the 1937 Paris World Exhibition, albeit over the protest of French workers.

Riefenstahl's next film, the short *Tag der Freiheit: Unsere Wehrmacht* (*Day of Freedom: Our Armed Forces*, 1935) was in a way a sequel, shot to please the German Armed Forces, who were not at all pleased about having received little attention in *Triumph of the Will*.

The Olympic Games

Another major assignment from Hitler followed: to shoot the 1936 Olympic Games held in Germany. *Olympia, Part 1: Fest der Völker* (*Festival of Nations*) and *Part 2: Fest der Schönheit* (*Festival of Beauty*) premiered in 1938, again to great German and also international praise. Careful preparation, technical inventiveness, and eighteen months of editing helped Riefenstahl elevate sports photography—until then a matter for newsreels only—to a level of art rarely achieved. From the naked dancers in the opening sequence and the emphasis upon the African American athlete Jesse Owens (1913–1980) to the striking diving and steeplechase scenes, the film celebrated the beauty of the human form in motion through feats of strength and endurance.

Immediately after completing *The Blue Light* Riefenstahl had made plans to film *Tiefland* (*Lowlands*), a project interrupted by illness, Hitler's assignments, and World War II (1939–45). The film was finally finished in 1954. Many of Riefenstahl's other projects, most notably her plan to do a film on Penthisilea, the Amazon queen, were never completed at all. This was due partly to the fact that she was a woman in a man's profession but mostly to the war and the choices she made under the Nazis. Ultimately, all her work, in spite of the great talent and dedica-

tion it so clearly demonstrates, is tainted by the readiness and skill with which she put her art at the service of the Third Reich, whether it was from loyalty, political blindness, ambition, or, most likely, a combination of all three.

Later career

When Riefenstahl's film career came to a halt, her focus switched to still photography. She visited Africa many times in hopes of making a film, but eventually these trips resulted in two books of photography (*The Last of the Nubu*, in 1974, and *The People of Kau*, in 1976). Once again her work was praised for its beauty and criticized for its political leanings. When she was seventy, Reinstahl learned to scuba dive and concentrated her photography on underwater coral life, resulting in a new book *Coral Garden* (1976).

In 1993, when Riefenstahl was ninety-one years old, German director Ray Mueller made a film biography, *The Wonderful, Horrible Life of Leni Riefenstahl*. It was released along with the English translation of her autobiography, *Leni Riefenstahl: A Biography*. In both the film and the book, Riefenstahl proclaimed her innocence and mistreatment, never having realized the effect her films had on promoting the Nazi cause.

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CAL RIPKEN JR.

Born: August 24, 1960

Havre de Grace, Maryland

American baseball player

Cal Ripken Jr. holds many records in professional baseball, but it is his breaking of Lou Gehrig's (1903–1941) record of 2,131 consecutive games played that gained him so many admirers, who call him the “Iron Man” of baseball. The perseverance, endurance, and everyday work ethic that Ripken exhibited throughout his twenty-one seasons with the Baltimore Orioles made him one of the most popular professional athletes in all of sports.

Growing up with the Orioles

Calvin Edwin Ripken Jr. was born on August 24, 1960, in the small Maryland town of Havre de Grace, to Calvin Sr. and Viola Ripkin. His father had been with the Baltimore Orioles baseball team as a minor league catcher since 1957. After a shoulder injury dashed his hopes of a major league career, the elder Ripken stayed on with the club as a coach and manager at both the minor and major league level. During the summers, the family would leave Aberdeen, Maryland, about thirty miles north of Baltimore, and travel with Cal Sr. during the baseball season. Even with all of the traveling alongside his father, Cal Jr. never saw much of him because of the long hours he put in at the ball park. He soon came to the conclusion that the only way he would be able to see his father was if he played baseball.

In 1976, Ripken's father was promoted to a coaching position with the Orioles in Baltimore. Cal Jr. was a constant presence, pitching and hitting during batting practices, retrieving balls, getting advice from major league stars like Brooks Robinson (1937–), and dreaming of becoming a Baltimore Oriole.

In high school Ripken made the varsity (a school's main team which is usually made up of upperclassmen) baseball team as a freshman. Ripken played in the Mickey Mantle World Series in Texas in 1977 and won the Harford County batting title with an amazing .492 batting average (the percent of time a baseball player gets a hit) his senior year. His high school team was crowned state Class A champions in 1978 and, soon after, Ripken was selected by the Orioles in the second round of the annual baseball draft. His dream was complete, as he was now a member of the Baltimore Orioles organization.

Begins play for the Orioles

Ripken was employed by Baltimore's minor league team in Bluefield, West Virginia, where he was assigned the shortstop position instead of pitcher. His first season with Bluefield was not a great success. He had a .264 batting average and led the league in errors with thirty-three. Soon after, he was moved to the Orioles's Florida Instructional League team in Miami and improved to a .303 batting average.

By the next season Ripken's play greatly improved. He was named the Southern League's all-star and was soon moved up the ladder again, this time to the Orioles's AAA team (the minor league team one step below the major league team) in Rochester, New York, in 1981. He continued to develop in



Cal Ripken Jr.

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Rochester, with a batting average of .288 and twenty-three home runs, before being called up to the major leagues in August of 1981.

Ripken had a batting average of only .128 in thirty-nine at-bats during his first season with the Orioles, but his second season would prove to be a turning point. Ripken's performance in his second season improved to a .264 batting average with twenty-eight home runs. He was selected as the American League's Rookie of the Year.

In 1983, with Ripken firmly in place and comfortable, he helped the Orioles win the World Series against the Philadelphia Phillies. For his efforts he was voted the

American League's Most Valuable Player for the series and the *Sporting News* player of the year.

"Iron Man"

By the 1989 season, Ripken was slowly taking over as the team's leader. Despite losing the divisional title to the Toronto Blue Jays, Ripken committed only eight errors and hit twenty-one home runs. This made him the first shortstop to have eight 20-homer seasons. On June 12, 1990, Ripken moved into second place for the record of most consecutive games played as he appeared in his one thousand three hundredth consecutive game, surpassing Everett Scott's mark. He also set a shortstop record by playing ninety-five games without committing an error.

On September 6, 1995, Ripken became baseball's "Iron Man" as he surpassed Lou Gehrig's all-time consecutive games played record of 2,130. He had not missed a game since May 30, 1982, and when the game became official in the fifth inning, the capacity crowd at Baltimore's Camden Yards roared its approval. During a speech after the milestone game, Ripken underplayed his achievement and showed the humility (the state of not being arrogant) that had become his trademark. "Tonight I stand here, overwhelmed, as my name is linked with the great and courageous Lou Gehrig," he told the crowd. "I'm truly humbled to have our names spoken in the same breath."

On September 20, 1998, Ripken took a day off work, leaving his streak of most consecutive games played at an astounding two 2,632, undoubtedly one of the safest records in all of sports. In July of 2001, Ripken played in his last All-Star game, winning the

Most Valuable Player award. At the end of that season, Ripken walked away from the game for good. In retirement he holds nearly every Oriole offensive batting record, including most hits, doubles, home runs, and runs batted in.

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DIEGO RIVERA

Born: December 8, 1886

Guanajuato, Mexico

Died: November 25, 1957

Mexico City, Mexico

Mexican painter

Diego Rivera was one of Mexico's most famous painters. He rebelled against the traditional school of painting and developed a style that combined historical, social, and political ideas. His great body of work reflects cultural changes taking place in Mexico and around the world during the turbulent twentieth century.

The young artist

Diego Maria Rivera and his twin brother Carlos were born in Guanajuato, Guanajuato State, Mexico, on December 8, 1886. Less than two years later his twin died. Diego's parents were Diego Rivera and Maria Barrientos de Rivera. His father worked as a teacher, an editor for a newspaper, and a health inspector. His mother was a doctor. Diego began drawing when he was only three years old. His father soon built him a studio with canvas-covered walls and art supplies to keep the young artist from drawing on the walls and furniture in the house. As a child, Rivera was interested in trains and machines and was nicknamed "the engineer." The Rivera family moved to Mexico City, Mexico, in 1892.

In 1897 Diego began studying painting at the San Carlos Academy of Fine Arts in Mexico City. His instructors included Andrés Ríos Félix Para (1845–1919), Santiago Rebull (1829–1902), and José María Velasco (1840–1912). Para showed Rivera Mexican art that was different from the European art that he was used to. Rebull taught him that a good drawing was the basis of a good painting. Velasco taught Rivera how to produce three-dimensional effects. He was also influenced by the work of José Guadalupe Posada (1852–1913), who produced scenes of everyday Mexican life engraved on metal.



Diego Rivera.

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In 1902 Rivera was expelled from the academy for leading a student protest when Porfirio Díaz (1830–1915) was reelected president of Mexico. Under Díaz's leadership, those who disagreed with government policies faced harassment, imprisonment, and even death. Many of Mexico's citizens lived in poverty, and there were no laws to protect the rights of workers. After Rivera was expelled, he traveled throughout Mexico painting and drawing.

Art in Europe

Although Rivera continued to work on his art in Mexico, he dreamed of studying in

Europe. Finally, Teodora A. Dehesa, the governor of Veracruz, Mexico, who was known for funding artists, heard about Rivera's talent and agreed to pay for his studies in Europe. In 1907 Rivera went to Madrid, Spain, and worked in the studio of Eduardo Chicharro. Then in 1909 he moved to Paris, France. In Paris he was influenced by impressionist painters, particularly Pierre-Auguste Renoir (1841–1919). Later he worked in a postimpressionist style inspired by Paul Cézanne (1839–1906), Paul Gauguin (1848–1903), Georges Seurat (1859–1891), Henri Matisse (1869–1954), Raoul Dufy (1877–1953), and Amedeo Modigliani (1884–1920).

As Rivera continued his travels in Europe, he experimented more with his techniques and styles of painting. The series of works he produced between 1913 and 1917 are cubist (a type of abstract art usually based on shapes or objects rather than pictures or scenes) in style. Some of the pieces have Mexican themes, such as the *Guerrillero* (1915). By 1918 he was producing pencil sketches of the highest quality, an example of which is his self-portrait. He continued his studies in Europe, traveling throughout Italy learning techniques of fresco (in which paint is applied to wet plaster) and mural painting before returning to Mexico in 1921.

Murals and frescoes

Rivera believed that all people (not just people who could buy art or go to museums) should be able to view the art that he was creating. He began painting large murals on walls in public buildings. Rivera's first mural, the *Creation* (1922), in the Bolívar Amphitheater at the University of Mexico, was the first important mural of the twentieth century.

The mural was painted using the encaustic method (a process where a color mixed with other materials is heated after it is applied). Rivera had a great sense of color and an enormous talent for structuring his works. In his later works he used historical, social, and political themes to show the history and the life of the Mexican people.

Between 1923 and 1926 Rivera created frescoes in the Ministry of Education Building in Mexico City. The frescoes in the Auditorium of the National School of Agriculture in Chapingo (1927) are considered his masterpiece. The oneness of the work and the quality of each of the different parts, particularly the feminine nudes, show off the height of his creative power. The general theme of the frescoes is human biological and social development. The murals in the Palace of Cortés in Cuernavaca (1929-1930) depict the fight against the Spanish conquerors.

Marriage, art, and controversy in the United States

In 1929 Rivera married the artist Frida Kahlo (1907–1954). The couple traveled in the United States, where Rivera produced many works of art, between 1930 and 1933. In San Francisco he painted murals for the Stock Exchange Luncheon Club and the California School of Fine Arts. Two years later he had an exhibition at the Museum of Modern Art in New York City. One of his most important works is the fresco in the Detroit Institute of Arts (1933), which depicts industrial life in the United States. Rivera returned to New York and began painting a mural for Rockefeller Center (1933). He was forced to stop work on the mural because it included a picture of

Vladimir Lenin (1870–1924), the founder of the Russian Communist Party and the first leader of the Soviet Union. Many people in the United States disagreed with communism (a political and economic system in which property and goods are owned by the government and are supposed to be given to people based on their need) and Lenin and the mural was later destroyed. Rivera was a member of the Mexican Communist Party and many of his works included representations of his political beliefs. In New York Rivera also did a series of frescoes on movable panels depicting a portrait of America for the Independent Labor Institute before returning to Mexico in 1933.

Back to Mexico

After Rivera and Kahlo returned to Mexico, he painted a mural for the Palace of Fine Arts in Mexico City (1934). This was a copy of the project that he had started in Rockefeller Center. In 1935 Rivera completed frescoes, which he had left unfinished in 1930, on the stairway in the National Palace. The frescoes show the history of Mexico from pre-Columbian times to the present and end with an image representing Karl Marx (1818–1883), the German philosopher and economist whose ideas became known as Marxism. These frescoes show Rivera's political beliefs and his support of Marxism. The four movable panels he worked on for the Hotel Reforma (1936) were removed from the building because they depicted a representation of his views against Mexican political figures. During this period he painted portraits of Lupe Marín and Ruth Rivera and two easel paintings, *Dancing Girl in Repose* and the *Dance of the Earth*.

In 1940 Rivera returned to San Francisco to paint a mural for a junior college on the general theme of culture in the future. Rivera believed that the culture of the future would be a combination of the artistic genius of South America and the industrial genius of North America. His two murals in the National Institute of Cardiology in Mexico City (1944) show the development of cardiology (the study of the heart) and include portraits of the outstanding physicians in that field. In 1947 he painted a mural for the Hotel del Prado, *A Dream in the Alameda*.

A celebration of fifty years of art

In 1951 an exhibition honoring fifty years of Rivera's art took place in the Palace of Fine Arts. His last works were mosaics for the stadium of the National University and for the Insurgents' Theater, and a fresco in the Social Security Hospital No. 1. Frida Kahlo died on July 13, 1954. Diego Rivera died in Mexico City on November 25, 1957.

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PAUL ROBESON

Born: April 9, 1898

Princeton, New Jersey

Died: January 23, 1976

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

African American singer, actor, and political activist

Paul Robeson was an African American singer, actor, and political activist. He crusaded for equality and justice for African Americans.

Early life and distinguished scholar

Paul Leroy Robeson was born the last of eight children in the Robeson family, on April 9, 1898, in Princeton, New Jersey. His father, William Drew Robeson, was a runaway slave who fought for the North in the Civil War (1861–65), when Northern forces clashed with those of the South over secession, or the South's desire to leave the Union. His father put himself through Lincoln University, received a degree in divinity, and was pastor at a Presbyterian church in Princeton. Paul's mother, Anna Louisa Robeson, was a member of the distinguished Bustill family of Philadelphia, which included patriots in the Revolutionary War (1775–83), when the American colonies fought for independence from Great Britain. She also helped found the Free African Society, and maintained agents in the Underground Railroad, a secret system to help runaway slaves.

Paul's mother died when he was six and his father moved the remaining family to Sommerville, New Jersey. There, young Paul spent his childhood under his father's influ-

ence, regularly working with him after school and also singing in his father's church. From his father Robeson learned to work hard, pursue valuable goals, fight for his beliefs, and to help his people's cause.

At seventeen Robeson won a scholarship to Rutgers University in New Brunswick, New Jersey. Although he was only the third African American student in the school's history, Robeson was immensely popular and was considered an athlete "without equal." He won an amazing twelve major letters (varsity spots on sports teams) in four years. His academic record was also brilliant. He won first prize (for four consecutive years) in every speaking competition the at the college for which he was eligible, and he was elected to Phi Beta Kappa, a scholarship honor society. In addition, he engaged in social work in the local black community and delivered his senior class graduation speech. Rutgers subsequently honored him as the "perfect type of college man."

Turns to entertainment

Robeson graduated from the Columbia University Law School in 1923 and took a job with a New York City law firm. In 1921 he married Eslanda Goode Cardozo; they had one child. Robeson's career as a lawyer ended abruptly when others within the firm turned on him because he was African American. He then turned to acting as a career, playing the lead in *All God's Chillun Got Wings* (1924) and *The Emperor Jones* (1925). He added to his acting by singing spirituals. He was the first to give an entire program of exclusively African American songs in concert, and he was one of the most popular concert singers of his time.

Robeson starred in such stage presentations as *Show Boat* (1928), *Othello*, in Lon-

don, England (1930), *Toussaint L'Ouverture* (1934), and *Stevedore* (1935). His *Othello* (1943–44) ran for 296 performances—a remarkable run for a Shakespearean play on Broadway. While playing opposite white actress Mary Ure, he became the first black actor ever to do the role in England's Shakespeare Memorial Theater.

Robeson's most significant films were *Emperor Jones* (1933), *Show Boat*, *Song of Freedom* (both 1936), and *Proud Valley* (1939). Charles Gilpin and Robeson, as the first African American men to play serious roles on the American stage, opened up this aspect

of the theater for African Americans. Robeson used his talents not only to entertain but to gain appreciation for the cultural differences among men.

International affairs

During the 1930s Robeson entertained throughout Europe and the United States. In 1934 he made the first of several trips to the Soviet Union. He spoke out against the Nazis, Adolf Hitler's (1889–1945) radical German army, and sang to Loyalist troops during the Spanish Civil War (1936–39), when battles erupted between Spain's traditionalists and reigning Second Spanish Republic. In addition he raised money to fight the Italian invasion of Ethiopia, supported the Committee to Aid China, and became chairman of the Council on African Affairs (which he helped establish in 1937). A spokesman for cultural black nationalism (a radical movement that called for African Americans to set up their own self-governing nation), Robeson also continued to fight racial discrimination (forced separation people based on race). During World War II (1939–45), when the Allies—the United States, England, France, and the Soviet Union—battled German-led Axis forces, he supported the American effort by entertaining soldiers in camps and laborers in war industries.

After the war, Robeson worked full-time campaigning for the rights of African Americans around the world. In a period of great paranoia within the nation, the American government and many citizens felt threatened by Robeson's crusade for peace and on behalf of minorities. The fact that for over fifteen years he was America's most popular African American did not prevent Robeson

from being banned from American concert and meeting halls and being denied a passport to travel overseas.

Awards and legacy

During the 1950s Robeson performed in black churches and for trade unions. After eight years of denial, he won his passport, gave a concert in Carnegie Hall, and published *Here I Stand* in 1958. He went abroad on concert, television, and theater engagements. He received numerous honors and awards: the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People's (NAACP) Spingarn Medal, several honorary degrees from colleges, the Diction Award from the American Academy of Arts and Letters, numerous awards from labor unions and civic organizations, and the Stalin Peace Prize.

Robeson had used an “unshakable dignity and courage” learned from his father to break stereotypes (generalizations of a person or group) and limitations throughout his life. He added fifteen spoken languages, a law degree, an international career as singer and actor, and civil rights activist to his long list of accomplishments in his effort to be “the leader of the black race in America.”

Robeson returned to America in 1963 in poor health and soon retired from public life. Slowly deteriorating and living in seclusion, Robeson died on January 23, 1976, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, after suffering a stroke.

Honored after death

It took Robeson seventy-seven years to win the respect of the college sports world.

During his outstanding, four-year football career at Rutgers University, Robeson was named All-American in 1917 and 1918, the first African American to do so. In 1995, after his race and politics no longer took away from his legacy and the awards were based more on accomplishments, he was inducted posthumously (after his death) into the College Football Hall of Fame at the new fourteen million dollar museum's grand opening in South Bend, Indiana. *Sports Illustrated* called it a "long-overdue step toward atonement [setting things right]."

In an article in *Jet* magazine, Robeson's son, Paul Jr., who accepted the honor, talked about his father's influence on African American men and his dedication to causes. "He felt it was a job he had to do for his people and the world as a whole," said the younger Robeson. His songs, such as his trademark *Ol' Man River*, and acting have remained available in videos and new releases of his vintage recordings.

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MAXIMILIEN DE ROBESPIERRE

Born: May 6, 1758

Arras, France

Died: July 28, 1794

Paris, France

French political leader and lawyer

Maximilien de Robespierre was the leading voice of the government that ruled France during the French Revolution. He was largely responsible for the Reign of Terror, in which thousands of suspected French traitors were executed.

Early life

Maximilien François Marie Isidore de Robespierre was born on May 6, 1758, in Arras, France. His mother died when he was only six and his father, a lawyer, abandoned the family soon afterward. Robespierre received a law degree from the Collège Louis-le-Grand in Paris, France, and practiced law in Arras. He began to assume a public role as a voice calling for political change and wrote articles detailing his opinions. At age thirty he was elected to the Estates General, the French legislature.

Role in early revolution

During the first period of the French Revolution (1789–91), in which the Estates General became the National Assembly, Robespierre made many speeches. His ideas were seen as extreme: his belief in civil liberty and equality, his refusal to compromise, and his anger toward all authority won him little



Maximilien de Robespierre.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

support in the legislature. He favored giving the vote to all men, not just property owners, and he opposed slavery in the colonies. Robespierre was more popular at meetings of a Paris club called the Jacobins, whose members admired him and referred to him as “the Incorruptible” because of his honesty and firm sense of right and wrong.

When Robespierre’s term as a legislator ended in September 1791, Robespierre remained in Paris, spending time at the Jacobins and publishing a weekly political journal. During this period he was a critic of King Louis XVI (1754–1793) and those who supported a limited, constitutional monarchy

(rule by a single person). Robespierre, deeply suspicious of the king, spoke and wrote in opposition to the course of events until August 1792, when the monarchy was overthrown and the First French Republic was established.

Period in power

A group of representatives was quickly elected to draft a constitution and to govern the country in the meantime, and Robespierre was elected to attend. As a spokesman for the Jacobins in the National Convention, he was a harsh critic of the king, who was finally placed on trial, convicted, and executed in January 1793. In the months that followed Robespierre turned his anger on a group of moderates (those who prefer less abrupt change) called the Girondins, leading the effort to have their members removed from the convention, arrested, and executed.

In July 1793 Robespierre was elected to the Committee of Public Safety, which acted to protect the republic during the dual problems of foreign war (most of Europe was fighting against the Revolutionary government in France) and civil war (which threatened to bring down that government). It executed people who were suspected of supporting the king or making plans to take over the government. Thousands were put to death with a quick trial or no trial at all. This became known as the Reign of Terror.

Robespierre faced increased opposition on both sides. Included among these were the Hébertists, a group that controlled the Paris city government and was upset with wartime shortages and increased prices, and the Indulgents, moderate Jacobins who felt that the Reign of Terror should be relaxed

since the war had ended. Robespierre had leaders of both groups rounded up and executed, including Georges Jacques Danton (1759–1794), who had once been a close associate of his. Robespierre and his supporters claimed that they wanted to create a Republic of Virtue in which citizens would live honest, moral lives and serve the community.

Downfall and execution

Opposition to Robespierre continued to grow. More and more of the public, now that the military crisis was over, wanted a relaxation, not an increase, of the terror. In July 1794 Robespierre spoke for the need of the Committee of Public Safety to continue its activities. His opponents took a stand against him and on July 27 they voted for his arrest. He and his followers were quickly released, however, and they gathered to plan a rising of their own. But the opposition leaders rallied their forces; Robespierre and his supporters were captured that night and executed the next day. The period of the Thermidorian Reaction, during which the Terror was ended and France returned to a more moderate government, began with the deaths of Robespierre and his supporters.

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SMOKEY ROBINSON

Born: February 19, 1940

Detroit, Michigan

African American singer, songwriter, and producer

Hailed by some as the greatest living American songwriter, Motown star Smokey Robinson has been composing and singing rhythm and blues hits for more than three decades.

Growing up a “Miracle”

William “Smokey” Robinson Jr. was born on February 19, 1940, in Detroit, Michigan, in the rough Brewster ghetto, a poor and generally dangerous neighborhood. Young Smokey grew up listening to his mother’s records, including the works of B. B. King (1925–), Muddy Waters (1915–1983), John Lee Hooker (1917–2001), Sarah Vaughan (1924–1990), and Billy Eckstine (1914–1993). These black artists, he commented in *Rolling Stone*, were “the first inspirational thing I had.” When Robinson was ten, his mother died, and his sister Geraldine took him in, raising him along with her ten children. The family was poor but close-knit, and Robinson spent his youth writing songs and singing in local bands.

Robinson would not consider a professional career until he graduated from high



Smokey Robinson.

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school, and even then he tried barber school and courses in dentistry before giving his full attention to music. In 1954 he formed a rhythm and blues (a form of music combining jazz, blues, and other musical styles) group called the Matadors; the name was changed to the Miracles three years later when a female singer, Claudette Rogers, joined the group. Rogers married Robinson in 1959. At first the members of the Miracles—who were each paid five dollars per week by their agent, Berry Gordy (1929–)—found the music business difficult.

Robinson was lucky to have encountered Berry Gordy during an audition for another

agent; Gordy, then a fledgling (just starting out) music producer on a limited budget, was equally fortunate to have found Robinson. Gordy began to produce the Miracles' singles in 1958, collaborating with Robinson on lyrics and tunes. Their first release, "Got a Job"—an answer to the Silhouettes' number one hit "Get a Job"—hit number 93 on the nationwide Billboard Top 100 chart. The debut was encouraging, but nothing prepared Gordy and Robinson for the limelight they would gain in 1960. Late that year they released an upbeat single, "Shop Around," that became a chart-topping million-seller. The Miracles became a national phenomenon, and Gordy was able to launch Motown Records, a landmark production company that introduced such talents as Diana Ross (1944–) and the Supremes, Stevie Wonder (1950–), Marvin Gaye (1939–1984), and the Temptations.

Became a sought-after songwriter

Robinson and the Miracles were Gordy's first star-quality group, and they continued their association with Motown as the company grew. Indeed, Robinson wrote hit songs not only for his group but for other Motown headliners as well.

Throughout the 1960s, especially in the latter half of the decade, the Motown sound competed with the music of the British invasion (the sudden appearance of extremely popular British bands, led by the Beatles and Rolling Stones) for popularity among America's youth. Robinson and the Miracles were favorites among the Motown personnel, earning more than six gold records (five hundred thousand or more records sold) containing such hits as "The Tracks of My Tears," "You've Really Got a Hold on Me," "I Second That

Emotion,” and “Ooo Baby Baby.” Still, Robinson was on the verge of leaving the group in 1968 when his son Berry was born. He reconsidered almost immediately, however, when the Miracles single, “Tears of a Clown,” became a number one hit, first in England and then in the United States. Robinson left the Miracles in 1972; the band went on without him until the late 1970s.

For a time after leaving the Miracles, Robinson concentrated on his business duties as vice president of Motown Records. He soon returned to recording, however, this time as a solo artist. His solo albums are, on the whole, more thoughtful and mellow than his work with the Miracles.

Inducted into the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame

Robinson's records of the late 1980s, when he was well into his third decade in the music business, continued to gain popularity and the approval of critics. A *People* magazine reviewer found that on his 1986 album *Smoke Signals*, for example, the singer “remains a uniquely resilient performer.” His 1987 album entitled *One Heartbeat* was termed “another winning package of sharp, sophisticated soul” by a reviewer from *Rolling Stone*. Robinson hits like “Cruisin’,” “Just to See Her”—a Grammy Award winner—and “Being With You” became both rhythm and blues and pop hits. Coupled with his success with the Miracles and as a major Motown songwriter, Robinson's solo achievements in the music industry led to his 1986 induction into the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame, and in 1989 he was named a Grammy Living Legend.

Coping with such enormous fame has not always been easy for Robinson. He wrote

of his personal struggles in his 1989 collaboration with David Ritz, *Smokey: Inside My Life*. Musician writer Jon Young remarked that the autobiography (a story that recounts one's own life) “documents everything from [Robinson's] family history and the early days of the Miracles to his extramarital affairs and, most striking, a graphic account of two years in the [depths] of cocaine addiction in the mid-'80s.” When asked why he chose to provide such candid details about his drug addiction, Robinson responded to Young, “I wrote it because it was God's will. . . . I was saved from drugs in 1986 when my pastor prayed for me. I never went to rehab or to a doctor. It was a miracle healing from God, so that I could carry the message about the perils of drugs. At the time I was saved, I was already dead. You are now speaking to Lazarus.”

Left Motown for SBK Records

With the onset of the 1990s, Robinson's contract with Motown Records expired and after a long and productive career with the record company, he moved to SBK Records. With SBK, Robinson released a well-received album he coproduced and recorded in less than six weeks, 1991's *Double Good Everything*.

Also in 1991 Robinson ventured into previously uncharted areas of the music world, considering an album of country-western tunes and penning the score for a Broadway musical titled *Hoops*, which presented the history of the Harlem Globetrotters basketball team.

Musical productivity and recognition for his accomplishments have not slowed for Smokey Robinson. In 1999 he released the well-received *Intimate* album. Two years later

Smokey Robinson and the Miracles were inducted into the Vocal Group Hall of Fame & Museum, which is dedicated to “honor the greatest vocal groups in the world.”

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JOHN D. ROCKEFELLER

Born: July 8, 1839

Richford, New York

Died: May 23, 1937

Ormond, Florida

American industrialist and philanthropist

John D. Rockefeller, an American industrialist (a person who owns or oversees an industrial corporation) and philanthropist (a person who works to help mankind), founded the Standard Oil Company, the University of Chicago, and the Rockefeller Foundation.

Childhood

John Davison Rockefeller was born on July 8, 1839, in Richford, New York, the second of six children. His father owned farm property and traded in many goods, including lumber and patent medicines. His

mother, who was quite the opposite of his father's fun-loving ways, brought up her large family very strictly. After living in Oswego, New York, for several years, the family moved to Cleveland, Ohio, in 1853, when it was beginning to grow into a city. John graduated from high school there and excelled in mathematics.

After graduation Rockefeller attended a commercial college for three months, after which he found his first job at the age of sixteen as a produce clerk. In 1859, at age nineteen, he started his first company, Clark and Rockefeller, with a young Englishman. They grossed (money earned before expenses) four hundred fifty thousand dollars in the first year of trading. Clark did the fieldwork while Rockefeller controlled office management, bookkeeping, and relationships with bankers.

Expanding businesses

From the start Rockefeller showed a genius for organization and method. The firm prospered during the Civil War (1861–65), when Confederate (Southern) forces clashed with those of the Union (North). With the Pennsylvania oil strike (1859) and the building of a railroad to Cleveland, they branched out into oil refining (purifying) with Samuel Andrews, who had technical knowledge of the field. Within two years Rockefeller became senior partner; Clark was bought out, and the firm Rockefeller and Andrews became Cleveland's largest refinery.

With financial help from S. V. Harkness and from a new partner, H. M. Flagler (1830–1913), who also secured favorable railroad freight rebates, Rockefeller survived the bitter competition in the oil industry. The

Standard Oil Company, started in Ohio in 1870 by Rockefeller, his brother William, Flagler, Harkness, and Andrews, had a worth of one million dollars and paid a profit of 40 percent a year later. While Standard Oil controlled one-tenth of American refining, the competition remained.

Rockefeller still hoped to control the oil industry. He bought out most of the Cleveland refineries as well as others in New York, Pittsburgh, and Philadelphia. He turned to new transportation methods, including the railroad tank car and the pipeline. By 1879 he was refining 90 percent of American oil, and Standard used its own tank car fleet, ships, docking facilities, barrel-making plants, depots, and warehouses.

Rockefeller came through the Panic of 1873, a severe financial crisis, still urging organization of the refiners. As his control approached near-monopoly (unfair control over an industry), he fought a war with the Pennsylvania Railroad in 1877 which created a refining company to try to break Rockefeller's control. But bloody railroad strikes (workers' protests) that year forced them to surrender to Standard Oil. Rockefeller's dream of order was near completion.

America's first trust

By 1883, after winning control of the pipeline industry, Standard's monopoly was at a peak. Rockefeller created America's first great "trust" in 1882. Ever since 1872, Standard had placed its gains outside Ohio in the hands of Flagler as "trustee" because laws denied one company's ownership of another's stock. All profits went to the Ohio company while the outside businesses remained independent. Nine trustees of the



*John D. Rockefeller.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Standard Oil Trust received the stock of forty businesses and gave the various shareholders trust certificates in return. The trust had a worth of about seventy million dollars, making it the world's largest and richest industrial organization.

In the 1880s the nature of Rockefeller's business began to change. He moved beyond refining oil into producing crude oil itself and moved his wells westward with the new fields opening up. Standard also entered foreign markets in Europe, Asia, and Latin America. From 1885 a committee system of management was developed to control Standard Oil's enormous empire.

Attacking the trust

Public opposition to Standard Oil grew with the emergence of the muckraking journalists (journalists who expose corruption), in particular, Henry Demarest Lloyd (1847–1903) and Ida Tarbell (1857–1944) who published harsh stories of the oil empire. Rockefeller was criticized for various practices: railroad rebates (a system he did not invent and which many refiners used); price fixing; and bribery (exchanging money for favors); crushing smaller firms by unfair competition, such as cutting off their crude oil supplies or restricting their transportation outlets. Standard Oil was investigated by the New York State Senate and by the U.S. House of Representatives in 1888. Two years later the Ohio Supreme Court invalidated Standard's original trust agreement. Rockefeller formally disbanded the organization and in 1899 Standard was recreated legally under a new form as a "holding company," (this merger was dissolved by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1911, long after Rockefeller himself had retired from active control in 1897).

Perhaps Rockefeller's most famous excursion outside the oil industry began in 1893, when he helped develop the Mesabi iron ore range of Minnesota. By 1896 his Consolidated Iron Mines owned a great fleet of ore boats and virtually controlled Great Lakes shipping. Rockefeller now had the power to control the steel industry, and he made an alliance with the steel king, Andrew Carnegie (1835–1919), in 1896. Rockefeller agreed not to enter steelmaking and Carnegie agreed not to touch transportation. In 1901 Rockefeller sold his ore holdings to the vast new merger created by Carnegie and J. P. Morgan (1837–1913), U.S. Steel. In that year

his fortune passed the \$200 million mark for the first time.

Philanthropic endeavors

Rockefeller, from his first employment as a clerk, sought to give away one-tenth of his earnings to charity. His donations grew with his fortune, and he also gave time and energy to philanthropic (charity-related) causes. At first he depended on the Baptist Church for advice. The Church wanted its own university, and in 1892, the University of Chicago opened. The university was Rockefeller's first major philanthropic creation, and he gave it over \$80 million during his lifetime. Rockefeller chose New York City for his Rockefeller Institute of Medical Research (now Rockefeller University), chartered in 1901. In 1902 he established the General Education Board.

The total of Rockefeller's lifetime philanthropies has been estimated at about \$550 million. Eventually the amounts involved became so huge (his fortune reached \$900 million by 1913) that he developed a staff of specialists to help him. Out of this came the Rockefeller Foundation, chartered in 1913, "to promote the well-being of mankind throughout the world." He died on May 23, 1937, in Ormond, Florida.

Rockefeller's personal life was fairly simple. He was a man of few passions who lived for his work, and his great talent was his organizing genius and drive for order, pursued with great single-mindedness and concentration. His life was absorbed by business and family (wife Laura and four children), and later by organized giving. He created order, efficiency, and planning with extraordinary success and sweeping vision.

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NORMAN ROCKWELL

Born: February 3, 1894
New York, New York
Died: November 8, 1978
Stockbridge, Massachusetts
American illustrator

Norman Rockwell's heartwarming illustrations of American life appeared on covers of the *Saturday Evening Post* magazine for many years. When people use the expression "as American as

apple pie," they could just as well say "as American as a Norman Rockwell painting."

Early years

Norman Perceval Rockwell was born on February 3, 1894, in New York City, the first of Jarvis Waring Rockwell and Nancy Hill's two sons. His father worked for a textile firm, starting as office boy and eventually moving up to manager of the New York office. His parents were very religious, and the young Rockwell sang in the church choir. Until he was about ten years old the family spent its summers at farms in the country. Rockwell recalled in his autobiography (the story of his own life) *My Adventures as an Illustrator*, "I have no bad memories of my summers in the country." He believed that these summers "had a lot to do with what I painted later on."

Rockwell enjoyed drawing at an early age and soon decided he wanted to be an artist. During his freshman year in high school, he also attended the Chase School on Saturdays to study art. Later that year he attended Chase twice a week. Halfway through his sophomore year, he quit high school and went full time to art school.

Started at bottom in art school

Rockwell enrolled first in the National Academy School and then attended the Art Students League. Because he was so serious when working on his art, he was nicknamed "The Deacon" by the other students. In his first class with a live model (a person modeling without clothing), the model was lying on her side and because all Rockwell could see were her feet and buttocks—that was all he drew. Rockwell noted that, as Donald Walton wrote in his book *A Rockwell Portrait*, "he



Norman Rockwell.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

started his career in figure drawing from the bottom up.”

At the Art Students League, Rockwell was strongly influenced by his teachers George Bridgeman, who helped him excel in his drawing skills, and Thomas Fogarty, who passed on his enthusiasm for illustration to Rockwell. While Rockwell was still at the school, Fogarty sent him to a publisher, where he got a job illustrating a children's book. He next received an assignment from *Boys' Life* magazine. The editor liked his work and continued to give him assignments. Eventually Rockwell was made art director of the magazine. He worked regularly on other

children's magazines as well. “The kind of work I did seemed to be what the magazines wanted,” he remarked in his autobiography.

Paintings made the Post

In March 1916 Rockwell traveled to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, to see George Horace Lorimer, editor of the *Saturday Evening Post*. It was Rockwell's dream to do a *Post* cover. Since he did not have an appointment, he showed his work to the art editor, who then showed it to Lorimer. The editor accepted Rockwell's two finished paintings for covers as well as three sketches for future covers. Rockwell's success with the *Post* made him more attractive to other magazines, and he began selling paintings and drawings to *Life*, *Judge*, and *Leslie's*. Also in 1916 he married Irene O'Connor, a schoolteacher.

In 1917, shortly after the United States entered World War I (1914–18; a war fought between German-led Central Powers and the Allies: England, the United States, Italy, and other nations), Rockwell joined the navy and was assigned to the camp newspaper. Meanwhile, he continued painting for the *Post* and other publications. After the war Rockwell started doing advertising illustration, working for Jell-O, Willys cars, and Orange Crush soft drinks, among others. In 1920 he was hired to paint a picture for the Boy Scout calendar. (He would continue to provide a picture for the popular calendar for over fifty years.) During the 1920s Rockwell's income soared. In 1929 he was divorced from his wife Irene, and in 1930 he married Mary Barstow, with whom he had three sons. In 1939 the family moved to a sixty-acre farm in Arlington, Vermont. In 1941 the Milwaukee Art Institute gave Rockwell his first one-man show in a major museum.

Wide variety of work

After President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945) made a speech to Congress in 1941 describing the “four essential human freedoms,” Rockwell created paintings of the four freedoms: Freedom of Speech, Freedom of Worship, Freedom from Want, and Freedom from Fear. He completed the paintings in six months in 1942, and they were published in the *Post* in 1943. The pictures became greatly popular, and many other publications asked the *Post* for permission to reprint them. The federal government also took the original paintings on a national tour to sell war bonds. As Ben Hibbs, editor of the *Post*, noted in Rockwell’s autobiography, “They were viewed by 1,222,000 people in 16 leading cities and were instrumental in selling \$132,992,539 worth of bonds.”

In 1943 Rockwell’s studio burned to the ground. He lost some original paintings and drawings as well as his large collection of costumes. He and his family then settled in nearby West Arlington, Vermont. Rockwell worked on special stamps for the Postal Service as well as posters for the Treasury Department, the military, and Hollywood movies. He also did illustrations for Sears mail-order catalogs, Hallmark greeting cards, and books such as *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* and *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*. In 1953 Rockwell and his family moved to Stockbridge, Massachusetts. In the summer of 1959, his wife Mary suffered a heart attack and died. In 1961 he married Molly Punderson, a retired schoolteacher.

Also in 1961 Rockwell received an honorary (obtained without meeting the usual requirements) Doctor of Fine Arts degree from the University of Massachusetts as well

as the Interfaith Award of the National Conference of Christians and Jews for his *Post* cover painting of the Golden Rule. Rockwell’s last *Post* cover (he did three hundred seventeen in all) appeared in December 1963. The magazine’s circulation was shrinking at that time, and new management decided to switch to a new format. Rockwell continued painting news pictures for *Look* and contributing to *McCall’s*.

People’s choice

In 1969 Rockwell had a one-man show in New York City. Critics were usually unkind toward Rockwell’s work or ignored it completely, but the public loved his paintings, and many were purchased for prices averaging around \$20,000. Thomas Buechner wrote in *Life*, “It is difficult for the art world to take the people’s choice very seriously.” In 1975, at the age of eighty-one, Rockwell completed his fifty-sixth Boy Scout calendar. In 1976 the city of Stockbridge celebrated a Norman Rockwell Day. On November 8, 1978, Rockwell died in his home.

In 1993 a new Rockwell museum was opened near Stockbridge. Museum director Laurie Norton Moffatt listed all of Rockwell’s works in a two-volume book; according to Landrum Bolling of the *Saturday Evening Post*, the total exceeded four thousand original works. In November 1999 an exhibit of Rockwell’s work entitled “Norman Rockwell: Pictures for the American People” opened at the High Museum of Art in Atlanta, Georgia.

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RICHARD RODGERS

Born: June 28, 1902

Long Island, New York

Died: December 30, 1979

New York, New York

American composer

Richard Rodgers, American composer, wrote the music for over fifty stage and film musicals and helped make the American musical a legitimate art form.

Childhood years

Richard Charles Rodgers was born near Arverne, Long Island, New York, on June 28, 1902. His father was a successful physician and his mother, a well-trained amateur musician. Rodgers heard music in his home from earliest childhood and was regularly taken to the theater. He was especially delighted by

the operettas (short operas) of Victor Herbert and other popular composers. A little later he was inspired by the musicals of Jerome Kern, whose influence, Rodgers said, was “a deep and lasting one.”

By the age of six Rodgers was playing the piano by ear and had begun receiving piano lessons. He attended secondary schools in New York. By the age of fourteen he had written two popular songs. Before he entered Columbia University in 1919, he had already written music for two amateur shows and had met Lorenz (Larry) Hart (1895–1943), a literate, amusing, somewhat driven creator of verse, with whom Rodgers would collaborate for the next twenty-four years. Their first published song was “Any Old Place with You” (1919), and hundreds followed. Rodgers left Columbia at the end of his second year to devote himself full time to musical studies at the Institute of Musical Art, where he spent another two years.

Collaboration with Hart

After working on amateur shows and on a few unsuccessful professional attempts, Rodgers and Hart won acclaim for their review *Garrick Gaieties* in 1925. Also in 1925, Rodgers, Hart, and Dorothy Fields (1905–1974) collaborated on *Dearest Enemy*, “an American musical play” (as they called it), contributing respectively music, lyrics, and book, adding something new to the theatrical scene. Not only was the material original, charming, and witty, but the form and subject of the entertainment were distinctly unusual. Here was a play based on American history with unpredictable and pertinent musical sections.

During the next decade Rodgers and Hart wrote three shows for the London stage and a

number of Broadway musicals and Hollywood films. Though not all of them were successful, they were distinguished by a number of fine romantic ballads such as “My Heart Stood Still” (1927), “With a Song in My Heart” (1929), “Dancing on the Ceiling” (1930), and “Lover” (1932). Hart’s lyrics always managed to avoid too much sentimentality, and Rodgers matched them with tunes of grace and skill.

Among the nine stage shows written between 1935 and 1942 were several of Rodgers and Hart’s most famous: *Jumbo* (1935); *On Your Toes* (1936), for which the distinguished Russian-born choreographer George Balanchine (1904–1983) created the ballet; *Slaughter on Tenth Avenue*; *Babes in Arms* (1937); *The Boys from Syracuse* (1938); and *Pal Joey* (1940). A number of the songs written during this time are among Rodgers and Hart’s most durable: “There’s a Small Hotel,” “Where or When,” “My Funny Valentine,” “This Can’t Be Love,” and “The Lady Is a Tramp.”



Richard Rodgers.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Collaboration with Hammerstein

After Hart died in 1943, Rodgers entered a period of unprecedented (having never occurred before) success with lyricist Oscar Hammerstein II (1895–1960). Of their ten musicals, five were among the longest-running and biggest-grossing shows ever created for Broadway: *Oklahoma!* (1943), *Carousel* (1945), *South Pacific* (1949), *The King and I* (1951), and *The Sound of Music* (1959).

The best work of Rodgers and Hart was marked by a considerable measure of wit and sophistication. In contrast, the style of the Rodgers and Hammerstein collaboration was dominated by a basic, almost folklike, simplicity. In many songs both music and words

seem stripped to the barest essentials. Romantic sentiment is a major ingredient.

Through touring productions, film versions, and recordings, the Rodgers and Hammerstein shows have become known around the world. Songs that have become popular standards include “Oh, What a Beautiful Morning,” “People Will Say We’re in Love,” “If I Loved You,” “You’ll Never Walk Alone,” “Some Enchanted Evening,” “Hello, Young Lovers,” and “Climb Every Mountain.”

After Hammerstein’s death in 1960 Rodgers for the first time served as his own lyricist for the score of *No Strings* (1962).

Contribution to musical theater

Rodgers's long association with the popular musical theater was an important one. His best projects were aimed at giving the musical play an ever more natural American expression. *Oklahoma!*, especially, brought an engaging simplicity and earthiness to the form. On many occasions Rodgers's choice of subject matter was unconventional (different from the norm), involving characters, situations, and themes of a seriousness seldom encountered previously in musical comedy. His work enriched and broadened a genre once regarded as little more than frivolous (not serious) entertainment and helped make it into an authentic American art form.

Rodgers's death on December 30, 1979, did not stop the popularity of his musical works, which enjoyed numerous revivals. Vintage original cast reissues and contemporary recordings, movies and videos, Broadway and community playhouse productions, and even illustrated books abound. They became the avenue through which the timeless works credited with launching the twentieth century musical continued to exist. Neither did Rodgers's shows lose dramatic impact. Their stories remained vividly current, such as *South Pacific*, which encompasses the uncertainties of its World War II (1939–45; when Great Britain, the United States, the Soviet Union, and France fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan) setting, and *The King and I*, which deals with racism and absolute authority.

Rodgers's work continues

Since music had to be hand-copied during most of Rodgers's lifetime, the musical scores from different productions did not

always agree. Although there are some early recordings to follow for authenticity (similarity to the original), it still left room for changes in interpretation or even omission (leaving out) of particular numbers during performances.

The original shows were showered with honors, from an Academy Award for best song ("It Might as Well be Spring" from *State Fair* won this award in 1945) to another one ten years later for best score for *Oklahoma!* Three shows won Tony Awards for Best Musical—*South Pacific* (1949), *The King and I* (1951), and *The Sound of Music* (1959).

Later performances continued to bring fame and additional awards as top stars such as Julie Andrews (1935–) and Patti LuPone (1949–) recorded Rodgers's songs and acted in revivals. A revival of *Oklahoma!* was presented in London in 2001. It was shown on Broadway in 2002 to critical praise.

One of the biggest breakthroughs in carrying on Rodgers's work was the transfer to videotape of a superior 1954 original movie of *Oklahoma!* It surpassed a same-cast, second filming of poorer quality and performance that had circulated for years. It took until 1994, when equipment finally was developed to transfer the "original edition" onto video for mass distribution.

Rodgers is remembered not only for his beautiful melodies, but also for the advancements he made for the American musical theater through his work with Hart and, especially, with Hammerstein.

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AUGUSTE RODIN

Born: November 12, 1840

Paris, France

Died: November 17, 1917

Meudon, France

French sculptor

The French sculptor Auguste Rodin created his sculptures largely as volumes existing in space, as materials to be controlled for a variety of surface effects. By doing this he anticipated the aims of many twentieth-century sculptors.

Childhood

François Auguste Rodin, the son of a police inspector, was born in Paris, France, on November 12, 1840. A shy child, Rodin showed little interest in anything besides drawing, and by the time he turned thirteen he had decided to dedicate his life to becoming an artist.

Rodin studied drawing under Horace Lecoq de Boisbaudran and modeling under the sculptor Jean Baptiste Carpeaux at the School of Decorative Arts in Paris (1854–1857). At the same time Rodin studied literature and history at the College de France. Rejected three times by a well-known art school, he supported himself by doing decorative work for ornamentalists and set designers.

In 1864 Rodin began to live with the young seamstress Rose Beuret, whom he married the last year of his life. Also in 1864 he completed his *Man with a Broken Nose*, a bust of an old street porter, which the Salon (French art gallery) rejected. That year he entered the studio of Carrier-Belleuse, a sculptor who worked in the light rococo, or elaborate, mode of the previous century. Rodin remained with Carrier-Belleuse for six years and always spoke warmly of him. In 1870 he and his teacher went to Brussels, Belgium, where they began the sculptural decoration of the Bourse.

The human figure

In 1875 Rodin went to Italy, where he was deeply inspired by the work of Donatello (c. 1386–1466) and of Michelangelo (1475–1564), whose sculpture he characterized as being marked by both “violence and constraint.” Back in Paris in 1876, Rodin made a bronze statue of a standing man raising his arms toward his head in such a way as to project an air of uncertainty. Rodin originally entitled the piece the *Vanquished*, then called it the *Age of Bronze*. When he submitted it to the Salon, it caused an immediate controversy, for it was so lifelike that it was believed to have been cast from the living



Auguste Rodin.

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model. The piece was unusual for the time in that it had no literary or historical meaning.

In 1878 Rodin began work on the *St. John the Baptist Preaching* and various related works, including the *Walking Man*. Influenced partially by some of Donatello's late works, it was based on numerous poses of the model in constant motion. Rodin raised the very act of walking into a subject worthy of concentrated study.

By 1880 Rodin's fame had become international, and that year the French government hired him to design a doorway for the proposed Museum of Decorative Arts. The project, called the *Gates of Hell* after

Dante's (1265–1321) *Inferno*, occupied Rodin for the rest of his life, and particularly in the next decade, but it was never finished. The gates were cast in their incomplete state in the late 1920s.

The Gates of Hell was conceived in the tradition of the great portals (gateways) of Western art, such as Lorenzo Ghiberti's (1378–1455) *Gates of Paradise* in Florence, Italy. Rodin was unable to plan the gates as a complete organized design and they remained a loose collection of groups. Yet certain of the isolated figures or groups of figures, when enlarged and executed separately, became some of Rodin's finest pieces: *Three Shades* (1880), *Crouching Woman* (1885), the *Old Courtesan* (1885), the *Kiss* (1886), and the *Thinker* (1888).

Portrait busts

From the late 1880s Rodin received many commissions from private individuals for portrait busts and from the state for monuments recognizing well-known people. Among Rodin's portrait busts are those of playwright George Bernard Shaw (1856–1950), writer Henri Rochefort (1830–1913), and poet Charles Baudelaire (1821–1867).

In the *Head of Baudelaire* (1892), as in his other portraits, Rodin went beyond mere realism to catch the inner spirit. Baudelaire's face looks ahead with strict attention, and the eyes seem to be transfixed (concentrated) upon something invisible.

Rodin matured slowly, and his first principal work, the *Age of Bronze*, was not made until he was past thirty-five, yet he achieved fame in his lifetime. After 1900 he knew inti-

mately many of the great men of his time, and his apprentices included Antoine Bourdelle (1861–1929) and Charles Despiau (1874–1946). In 1916 Rodin left his works to the state. He died in Meudon, France, on November 17, 1917.

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WILL ROGERS

Born: September 5, 1879

Oologah, Oklahoma

Died: August 15, 1935

Point Barrow, Alaska

American journalist, humorist, and performing artist

One of the most celebrated humorists (writers of clever humor) and public figures of his day, Will Rogers offered dry, whimsical commentaries on a variety of political, social, and economic issues, and he became the voice of the “average” citizen.

Childhood as a cowboy

Will Rogers was born on September 5, 1879, to Clement and Mary Rogers. The

youngest of eight children, Will was raised in a wealthy and privileged family on a ranch near Claremore, Oklahoma, which was then Indian Territory. His father, Clement, a rancher and farmer, was also a sharp businessman and an influential politician. Although Rogers loved his father, their strong personalities often led to conflict. His relationship with his mother was loving and affectionate, and when she passed away, ten-year-old Rogers was devastated.

Rogers was one-quarter Cherokee and liked to boast that this heritage, combined with his early experience as a cowboy, made him the ideal example of the American citizen. His early adult years were spent between working on the family ranch and traveling the world, and it was in South Africa that Rogers began his performing career with a Wild West show as a trick rider. He later joined a circus, then back in the United States, he worked in another Wild West show, which eventually led to a job in vaudeville, a theater style that used a variety of acts. In vaudeville he added to his performances with off beat lectures on the art of roping. Rogers’s humorous chatter, casual delivery, and southwestern drawl proved a popular combination, resulting in an invitation to join the popular Ziegfeld Follies on Broadway. He delighted audiences with his homely philosophy (the study of knowledge) and sharp remarks, becoming a renowned humorist and interpreter of the news.

Rogers and his wife and children moved to California, where he acted in a number of films, beginning with *Laughing Bill Hyde* (1918). Rogers’s two-year contract was terminated, however, when the studio changed hands. He then began his own film produc-



Will Rogers.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

tion company, but when this failed he was forced to return to New York City and the Ziegfield Follies.

The cowboy philosopher

Three years later the first two collections of Rogers's humor appeared—*The Cowboy Philosopher on the Peace Conference* and *The Cowboy Philosopher on Prohibition*, both published in 1919. *The Cowboy Philosopher on the Peace Conference* poked fun at the political activities surrounding the Versailles Treaty (signed in 1919, the treaty helped settle matters following World War I [1914–18]). The second volume ridiculed the Eighteenth

Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, passed in 1919, which outlawed the sale and consumption of alcohol.

Rogers posed as the cowboy philosopher, a rural American gaping wide-eyed at the shenanigans of a modern world run by crooked businessmen and dishonest politicians. Yet although Rogers's brand of popular humor appealed to the average citizen, he himself became a part of the establishment he made fun of. He befriended members of Congress as well as business leaders and at one time publicly supported the Fascist regime of Italian dictator Benito Mussolini (1883–1945), who ruled Italy with a cruel and iron fist. Rogers, as quoted by James Feibleman in *In Praise of Comedy: A Study in Its Theory and Practice*, once stated that he wished his gravestone to read, "I joked about every prominent man of my time, but I have never met a man I didn't like."

Rogers began a secondary career as an after-dinner speaker, and his success led in 1922 to a syndicated weekly newspaper column. The first two years of these columns were collected in the 1924 book *The Illiterate Digest*. The columns showcase the cutting criticisms Rogers aimed at government, the influence of big business, and the then-popular topic of world disarmament (to reduce weapons) in the aftermath of World War I (1914–18).

The cowboy in Europe

Rogers next moved onto the international stage of political humor. The *Saturday Evening Post* sent him abroad and his columns from Europe were collected in *Letters of a Self-Made Diplomat to His President*, published in 1926. The articles were published in the

magazine in the form of fictional letters to then-president Calvin Coolidge (1872–1933) and were full of humorous advice to the chief executive from Rogers's European observations. The next leg of the journey for the *Post* took Rogers to the Soviet Union, the former country that today is made up of Russia and several smaller nations, and his columns about this experience appeared in *There's Not a Bathing Suit in Russia*. This 1927 volume chronicles his trip to the world's first Communist government, a political system where the goods and services are owned and distributed by a controlling central government.

During this period Rogers further expanded into another media—the growing field of radio. He gave his first broadcast over the airwaves in 1926 and by 1930 had his own weekly slot. Like each of his speeches and syndicated columns, the radio speeches centered on a topic of current interest and were filled with Rogers's stories and sharp commentary on the issue. By the end of the 1920s Rogers was using his position in the spotlight to campaign for humanitarian causes (causes that improve the life of others). During devastating flooding along the Mississippi River in 1927, he visited the ravaged areas, gave special performances and donated the proceeds to flood victims, and testified before Congress supporting increased disaster aid to the area.

The year 1929 dealt a severe blow to the American frame of mind—in October the stock market crashed and the country was plunged into a deep economic depression, putting millions out of work. Rogers continued in his role as the foremost humorist of the nation's "little people" in his radio broadcasts and journalistic essays. In one piece, quoted

by E. Paul Alworth in *Will Rogers*, he wrote: "Now everybody has got a scheme to relieve unemployment, but there is just one way to do it and that's for everybody to go to work. 'Where?' Why right where you are, look around and you see lots of things to do, weeds to be cut, fences to be fixed, lawns to be mowed, filling stations to be robbed, gangsters to be catered to. . . ." Rogers supported the radical transformations President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945) began under the New Deal beginning in 1933. The celebrity spoke out in favor of lending a helping hand to those affected the most by the economic situation and again gave benefit performances.

He continued to star in films and indulged in his passion for airplanes. In August of 1935 a small plane carrying Rogers and a pilot friend, on their way to survey air routes from the United States to the Soviet Union, crashed over Point Barrow, Alaska, killing the entertainer. Rogers was fifty-five. His death was an occasion of national mourning. Newspapers and radio commentators praised him, a memorial was dedicated near his Oklahoma birthplace, and several volumes of his speeches, essays, broadcasts, and sayings appeared in print. Will Rogers is remembered as one of the best-loved celebrities of his era and one of the twentieth century's best-known humorists. Forty years after his death, collections of his essays and quips were still appearing in bookstores.

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ROLLING STONES

English rock and roll band

Often billed as “the world’s greatest rock and roll band,” the English rock group the Rolling Stones has outlasted nearly all of its 1960s peers and continues to belt out hits well into the group’s collective middle age.

Birth of a legend

The Rolling Stones were formed as early as 1949 when the two main members of the group, guitarist Keith Richards and singer Mick Jagger, went to school together. Richards (surname sometimes listed as Richard, born December 18, 1943, in Dartford, Kent, England) was the only child of Bert and Doris Richards, a working-class couple. His father was a foreman in a General Electric factory. Jagger (Michael Philip Jagger, born July 26, 1943, in Dartford, Kent, England) was one of Joe and Eva Jagger’s two sons. His father was a physical education instructor. Both Richards and Jagger were

fans of American musicians such as Chuck Berry (1926–) and Bo Diddley (1928–).

Eleven years later the two crossed paths again. At the time, Jagger was attending London’s School of Economics, while Richards was struggling at Sidcup Art College. They found out about a local musician named Alexis Korner who held blues jams at the Ealing Club. After Jagger began to sing for Korner’s Blues Incorporated, he decided to join a group that Richards was putting together. Other members included pianist Ian Stewart, bass player Dick Taylor, drummer Tony Chapman, and a guitar player named Brian Jones (Lewis Brian Hopkins-Jones, born February 28, 1942, in Cheltenham, Gloucestershire, England, died July 3, 1969). Jones, although only one year older than Jagger and Richards, had already fathered two children by the time he was sixteen. And while Richards was more influenced by the playing of Chuck Berry, Jones was a pure blues player.

Charlie Watts (Charles Robert Watts, born June 2, 1941, in Islington, England) was drumming for a jazz group when he was asked to replace Tony Chapman. The oldest member, bassist Bill Wyman (William Perks, born October 24, 1936 [some sources say 1941]), replaced Dick Taylor and completed the group. Manager Andrew Loog Oldham got them work at the Marquee Club in London, England, in 1963, billed as “Brian Jones and The Rollin’ Stones” (after a song by Muddy Waters [1915–1983]). With hair longer than any other group and a bad-boy attitude, the Stones became known as “the group parents love to hate.” Their public image was constantly fueled by Oldham, who also decided that pianist Stewart did not fit in and pushed him to the background.

Oldham got the Stones a contract with Decca Records, and in June 1963 they released their first single, a version of Chuck Berry's "Come On" backed with "I Want to Be Loved." Reaction was good, and it would only take another six months for the group to make it big. Continuing their eight-month residence at the Crawdaddy Club in Richmond, England, they released their version of the Beatles's "I Wanna Be Your Man" followed by Buddy Holly's (1936–1959) "Not Fade Away." Their fourth single, "It's All Over Now" by Bobby Womack, would climb all the way to number one (reflecting highest sales and radio play) in their homeland. Their next hit, "Little Red Rooster," also reached number one but was banned in the United States.

"Satisfaction"

The Rolling Stones already had two albums out in England by the time they broke the U.S. Top 10 with "The Last Time," written by Jagger and Richards. In the summer of 1965 they had a worldwide number one hit with "Satisfaction." Allan Klein then took over as manager, and in 1966 the band released *Aftermath*, its first album of all original songs. In 1967 the Stones recorded *Their Satanic Majesties Request*, noted mainly for being the last album that Brian Jones, who had become heavily involved with drugs, truly worked on. After 1968's *Beggar's Banquet*, Jones finally quit (or was kicked out of) the band in June 1969. Less than one month later he drowned in a swimming pool; the official cause of death was listed as "death by misadventure."

Two days later the Stones hired Mick Taylor (born January 17, 1948, in Hertfordshire, England), former guitarist for John Mayall's Bluesbreakers, as Jones's replacement. Their



*The Rolling Stones.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

first album after he joined, *Let It Bleed*, contained two haunting tunes, "Midnight Rambler" and "Gimme Shelter." The latter became the title of the movie documenting the Stones' free concert at Altamont, California, at which members of the Hell's Angels motorcycle gang (who had been hired as security guards) stabbed a man to death right in front of the stage. The group also released a live album from that tour, *Get Yer Ya Ya's Out*.

Experimentation and change

In 1971 The Stones formed their own label, Rolling Stones Records, and they began to experiment with different kinds of music.

Sticky Fingers contained songs with touches of jazz and country. *Exile on Main Street* has come to be regarded as their finest recording. Its country influence was stronger than ever, but the album also contains gospel, blues, and all-out rock. Their next two albums, *Goat's Head Soup* and *It's Only Rock and Roll*, were viewed as so-so efforts. In 1975 Taylor decided to walk away from the band. "I really got off on playing with them, but it wasn't enough of a challenge," he told *Rolling Stone* magazine.

Guitarist Ron Wood (born June 1, 1947, in London, England), who played with the Faces, fit the Stones mold perfectly, with the same musical roots and a look that was almost a carbon copy of Richard. Wood took Taylor's place on a 1975 tour of America, bounding back and forth with the Faces before finally joining the Stones full time. The first full album he contributed to was *Black and Blue* in 1976. The group's future was in doubt in 1977 when Richards was arrested in Toronto, Canada, for drug dealing, but his sentence did not include any jail time. "Drugs were never a problem," he told Edna Gundersen. "Police-men were a problem." After 1978's classic *Some Girls*, the later Stones records are hard to tell apart. Only the 1981 hit "Start Me Up" stands out from this period.

During the 1980s it was often rumored that the Rolling Stones would break up. Richards was not happy when Jagger took time off to work on his first solo album. Jagger then refused to tour to support the Stones' *Dirty Work*, instead hitting the road to promote his own *She's The Boss*. Richards, who had himself toured with Wood's New Barbarians in 1979, was outraged that Jagger would make the Stones a second choice. Richards released his own solo album, *Talk Is Cheap*.

Big-money tours

Although other solo albums and side projects followed, rumors of the band's breakup were put on hold in 1989, when the Stones announced plans for a new album and a world tour. *Steel Wheels* quickly sold over two million copies, and the accompanying tour, which earned over one hundred forty million dollars, was a hit with music reviewers and fans. However, *Steel Wheels* was to be Bill Wyman's last album and tour with the Stones—he announced his retirement in 1993. With Darryl Jones replacing Wyman, the Stones next released *Voodoo Lounge*, an album that in many ways was meant to recreate the classic Stones sound of the early 1970s. The album would go on to sell four million copies, and the supporting tour went on to become the highest grossing tour of all time.

Rumors of a Rolling Stones breakup eventually stopped. The band settled into the routine of producing a new album and going on tour every few years. Although they came under fire for the high prices of tickets (as high as three hundred dollars a seat on their 1999 tour), interest in their concerts remained high. In their free time, each member kept busy in his own way: Jagger worked on films and released other solo albums, including *Goddess in the Doorway*; Richards made solo albums and guest appearances on albums by blues artists such as Hubert Sumlin; Ron Wood, after receiving treatment for alcohol abuse, opened the Harrington Club in London, a private club devoted to healthy living (its restaurant serves only organic vegetables); Charlie Watts, with the help of drummer and producer Jim Keltner, released *The Charlie Watts/Jim Keltner Project*, a solo drum album; Bill Wyman also remained busy

(while insisting he did not regret leaving the band), writing books and recording music.

In 2001 Jagger and Richard appeared at Paul McCartney's (1942–) Concert for New York City to raise money for victims of the September 11 terrorist attacks on the United States. In 2002 the Rolling Stones announced another tour, which led to more grumbling about high ticket prices. Still, there seemed to be no decrease in the number of people willing to pay any price to see the legendary band.

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ELEANOR ROOSEVELT

Born: October 11, 1884

New York, New York

Died: November 6, 1962

New York, New York

American first lady, international diplomat, writer, and philanthropist

Eleanor Roosevelt was the wife of Franklin Delano Roosevelt (1882–1945), the thirty-second president of the United States. She was a well-known philanthropist (a person who works to aid others through charity). She was also an author, a world diplomat, and a tireless champion of social causes.

A lonely girlhood

Anna Eleanor Roosevelt was born in New York, New York, on October 11, 1884. Her family was financially comfortable but troubled. Her father was Elliott Roosevelt, the younger brother of Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919), who served as president of the United States. Although handsome and charming, Elliott suffered from frequent mental depression and alcoholism. Eleanor's mother was preoccupied with the family's image in upper-class society and embarrassed by Eleanor's appearance—which was not considered pretty.

Although Eleanor's father was often absent, she regarded him as a glamorous and exciting parent. When Eleanor was a child, her father entered an institution for alcoholics. It was one of many early losses for the young girl, whose mother died when she was just eight years old. After her mother's death, Eleanor and her two younger brothers went to live with their maternal grandmother in New York. Shortly thereafter the older brother died, and when Eleanor was not yet ten, she learned that her father had died. Her grandmother sheltered her from all outside contact except for family acquaintances.

Eleanor Roosevelt began discovering a world beyond her family after entering a



Eleanor Roosevelt.

school for young women at South Fields, England, at age fifteen. The school's headmistress (female principal) taught her students a sense of service and responsibility to society. Eleanor began to act upon this teaching after her return to New York, plunging into work for the good of others. At that same time, her tall, handsome cousin, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, began courting her. They were married in March 1905. Eleanor now had to contend with a controlling mother-in-law and with a husband who loved to be out in public and who did not really understand Eleanor's struggle to overcome her shyness and insecurity.

Becoming a public figure

Between 1906 and 1916, the Roosevelts had six children, one of whom died as an infant. The family lived in Hyde Park, New York, while Franklin pursued his political ambitions to become a leading figure in the Democratic Party. He served a term in the New York State Senate before President Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) appointed him assistant secretary of the Navy in 1913. Although Eleanor did much work for the Red Cross (a charitable medical organization) during World War I (1914–18), she remained out of the public eye.

A major turning point in Eleanor's life came in 1921, when Franklin contracted polio (an infectious disease that can cause paralysis). Franklin suffered from paralysis and permanently lost the use of his legs. Although Franklin's mother insisted that Franklin accept his condition and retire, Eleanor finally asserted her will over her mother-in-law and nursed him back into activity. Within a few years he had regained his strength and political ambitions. Meanwhile, Eleanor had become more of a public figure, speaking and working for the League of Women Voters (an organization that promoted active involvement in government), the National Consumers' League (an organization focused on the welfare of consumers and workers), the Women's Trade Union League (an organization concerned with better working conditions for women), and the women's division of the New York State Democratic Committee. She began to act as Franklin's "legs and ears" and acquired a certain reputation of her own. After Franklin became governor of New York in 1928, she kept busy inspecting state hospitals, homes, and prisons for her husband.

President's wife

Franklin Roosevelt's election to the presidency in 1932 meant, as Eleanor later wrote, "the end of any personal life of my own." She quickly became the best-known (and also the most criticized) first lady in American history. She evoked both intense admiration and strong hatred from her fellow Americans.

As first lady, Eleanor gave radio broadcasts and wrote a column that appeared in newspapers across the country. She traveled throughout the United States on fact-finding trips for Franklin. In particular, she became a voice for those in need, including working women, African Americans, youth, and tenant farmers. Such groups had been severely affected by the economic crisis known as the Great Depression (1929–39; the longest and most severe economic depression in the United States), which Franklin Roosevelt had tried to combat through the series of social programs known as the New Deal. Eleanor spoke out freely on issues, and she also became a key contact within the administration for officials seeking the president's support. In short, Eleanor became a kind of go-between between the individual citizen and the government, as well as between the president and some members of his administration.

During the 1930s Eleanor was particularly concerned with creating equal opportunities for women and with making sure that appropriate jobs for writers, artists, musicians, and theater people became a key part of the New Deal employment program known as the Works Progress Administration (WPA). She also promoted the cause of Arthurdale, a farming community built by the government for unemployed miners in West Virginia. She was concerned with pro-

viding work for jobless youth, both white and black. Much more than her husband, she spoke out against racism and tried to aid the struggle of black Americans toward full citizenship.

World figure

As the United States moved toward war in the late 1930s, Eleanor Roosevelt spoke out forcefully in favor of her husband's foreign policy. She accepted an appointment as deputy director in the Office of Civilian Defense but resigned in 1942 after being criticized for being a poor administrator in this position. After the United States formally entered World War II (1939–45) in 1941, she made numerous trips overseas to boost the spirits of troops and to inspect Red Cross facilities.

After Franklin Roosevelt died in office in April 1945, Eleanor was expected to retire to a quiet, private life. However, by the end of the year she was back in public. America's new president, Harry S. Truman (1884–1972), made her the American representative to the United Nations Commission on Human Rights. She remained in this post through 1952. Later, she continued to work for international understanding and cooperation as a representative of the American Association for the United Nations.

During the last decade of her life Eleanor Roosevelt traveled to numerous foreign countries, including the Soviet Union. She completed her *Autobiography* (1961), which included her earlier books *This Is My Story* (1937), *This I Remember* (1949), and *On My Own* (1958). By the early 1960s her strength had lessened. She died in New York City on November 6, 1962.

Despite her shy and lonely girlhood, Eleanor Roosevelt became one of the most important American women of the twentieth century. Her personal and social outlook inspired millions.

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FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

Born: January 20, 1882

Hyde Park, New York

Died: April 12, 1945

Warm Springs, Georgia

American president, governor, and politician

Franklin D. Roosevelt, thirty-second president of the United States, led the nation out of the period of economic crisis known as the Great Depression (1929–39) and later into World War II (1939–45). Before he died, he cleared the way for peace, including the establishment of the United Nations.

Youth and marriage

Franklin Delano Roosevelt was born on January 30, 1882, into a well-known family. The Roosevelts had been fairly wealthy for many generations. The family had often been important in the civic affairs of New York. When Franklin was born, his father was fifty-one years old and his mother was twenty-eight. As his parents' only child, he did not have to compete with other siblings for their attention. Tutors and governesses (female, live-in teachers) educated him at home until he was fourteen. At this time he attended Groton School, which educated boys of the upper class. The young Roosevelt was thus surrounded by privilege and by a sense of social importance from an early age. His family traveled in elite (high-society) circles, and he even visited the White House to meet President Grover Cleveland (1837–1908) when he was five years old.

As a young man, Roosevelt attended Harvard University in Cambridge, Massachusetts. While living in Cambridge, he met and decided to marry his cousin, Eleanor Roosevelt (1884–1962). The couple married in 1905. At that same time Franklin entered the Columbia University Law School. He became a lawyer and took a job as a clerk in a New York firm. However, he took his duties there lightly. It was later recalled that he had told

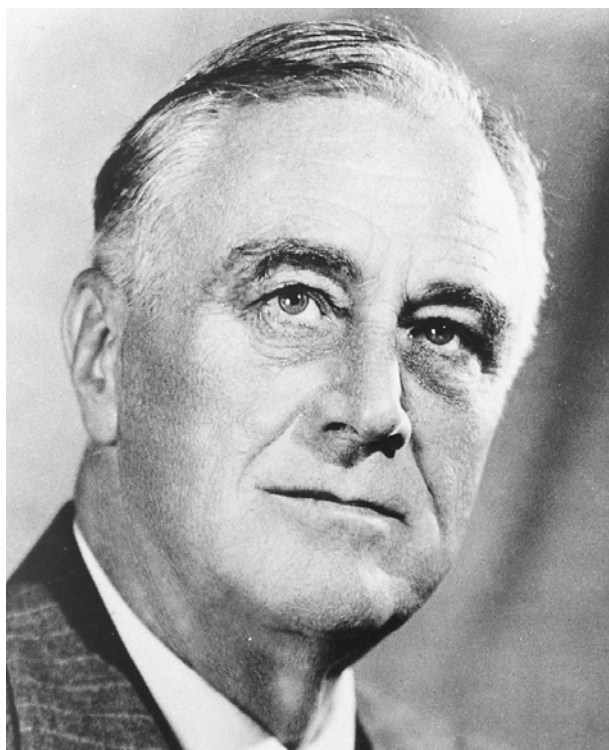
other clerks that he intended to enter politics and eventually become president.

Entering politics

Roosevelt's opportunity came in 1910. He accepted the Democratic nomination for the New York Senate and was elected. He was reelected in 1912, and that same year Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924) was elected president of the United States. Roosevelt had worked to support Wilson's run for office, and his efforts were noticed by the important Democrat Josephus Daniels (1862–1948). When Daniels became secretary of the Navy under Wilson, he persuaded Wilson to offer Roosevelt the assistant secretaryship.

Roosevelt soon became restless in his new position, and he decided to run for the Democratic nomination for U.S. senator of New York. Wilson and Daniels were not pleased, and afterward President Wilson never really trusted Roosevelt. This distrust increased when Roosevelt disagreed with the Wilson administration's policy in the years preceding World War I (1914–18), the conflict that pitted Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, and other countries against the forces of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and others. Wilson wanted to remain neutral—he wanted to keep the United States from taking sides in the war. Roosevelt openly favored greater engagement in the war. When America finally did enter the war in 1917, Roosevelt worked for a cause he believed in.

After the war came to an end, President Wilson suffered a devastating stroke while fighting to gain American support for the Versailles Treaty, the peace document which set the terms for the war's end. Throughout the United States there was obvious disappoint-



*Franklin D. Roosevelt.
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Franklin D. Roosevelt Library.*

ment with the treaty's final terms. Many Americans felt that they would do little to ensure future peace and democracy in the world. Anger and disappointment were widespread.

National politician

The Republican Party had the advantage of not having been responsible for America's role in World War I. In 1920 the Republicans nominated U.S. senator Warren G. Harding (1865–1923) of Ohio as their candidate for president. The Democrats nominated Ohio governor James Cox (1870–1957). His vice presidential candidate was Roosevelt.

It was a doomed run for office, but in one respect it was a beginning rather than an ending for Roosevelt. He had covered the nation by special trains, speaking many times a day and meeting local leaders everywhere. Roosevelt and Cox were easily defeated, but Roosevelt emerged as the leading figure in the Democratic party.

Victim of poliomyelitis

After his run for vice president, Roosevelt returned to work in New York City's financial district. But in the summer of 1921 he became mysteriously ill. His disease, which was not immediately diagnosed, was poliomyelitis. Often called simply polio, this infectious disease is caused by a virus and can lead to paralysis. Roosevelt became almost totally paralyzed as a result of this illness. He would never be able to use his legs again, which might have ended his political career. However, Eleanor and Franklin Roosevelt's friend Louis McHenry Howe (1871–1936) set out to renew Roosevelt's ambition.

Roosevelt's struggle during the next few years was very difficult and disappointing. He did exhausting exercises to reactivate his paralyzed muscles. In 1923 he tried the warm mineral waters of Warm Springs, Georgia. Roosevelt invested a good part of his remaining fortune in Warm Springs, and it soon became a resort for those with similar ailments.

New York governor

While at Warm Springs in 1928, Roosevelt was called to political duty again. Al Smith (1873–1944), the four-time governor of New York, was now running as a Democratic candidate for president. Although it became clear that Smith could not win the

national election, Smith felt that Roosevelt, as a candidate for governor, would help to carry New York. Roosevelt resisted, feeling that if he lost the race for the governorship he might lose his own chance to become president. Nevertheless, he ran and was barely elected.

Roosevelt now began the four years of his New York governorship that led to his presidency. By 1930, it was clear that he should be the Democratic candidate for president in 1932. Since 1929 the nation had been struggling in the Great Depression, the worst economic depression of its kind in history, and the Republican administration of then-president Herbert Hoover (1874–1964) had failed to find a way to help the country recover.

First presidential term

Roosevelt was elected president in 1932. He came to office with a dangerous economic crisis at its height. Some 30 percent of the work force was unemployed. Roosevelt began providing relief on a large scale by giving work to the unemployed and by approving a device for bringing increased income to farmers. He adjusted the U.S. currency (the American money system) so that those in debt could pay what they owed. Banks that were closed all over the country were helped to reopen, and gradually the crisis was overcome.

In 1934 Roosevelt proposed a national social security system that, he hoped, would prevent another such depression. Citizens would never be without at least minimum incomes again, because the new social security system (still in use today) used money paid by employees and employers to provide support to those who were unemployed,

retired, and disabled. Many citizens became devoted supporters of the president who had helped them. Roosevelt became so popular that he won reelection in 1936 by an overwhelming majority.

Second and third terms

Roosevelt's second presidential term began with a battle with the Supreme Court. The justices of the court had considered some of his economic programs to be against the principles of the U.S. Constitution. Roosevelt tried to fight the court by adding new justices who would be more accepting of his policies. However, many even in his own party opposed him in this attempt to pack the court, and the Congress defeated it. After this disagreement, relations were suspended between Roosevelt and the Congress. Nevertheless, in 1940 Roosevelt ran for a third presidential term. He was now certain that the leader of Nazi Germany, Adolf Hitler (1889–1945), intended to conquer all of Europe. Roosevelt saw that Europe would fall unless the United States came to its support.

The presidential campaign of 1940 was the climax of Roosevelt's plea that Americans set themselves against the Nazi threat. Many Americans remembered their disappointment after World War I, and many also leaned toward supporting the Germans rather than the group of countries known as the Allies (including Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union). The Allies opposed what were known as the Axis Powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan. The American people were so unwilling to be involved in this war that by the end of his campaign Roosevelt practically promised that young Americans would never be sent overseas to fight.

Roosevelt narrowly won the election. He was not far into his third presidential term when the decision to enter the war was made for him. On December 7, 1941, the Japanese attacked the Pearl Harbor naval base in Hawaii, causing serious losses to American forces. At once the White House became headquarters for those who controlled the strategy of World War II. British Prime Minister Winston Churchill (1871–1947) practically began living there. Together the leaders agreed that defeating Germany and Italy was the first priority, rather than focusing on the threat posed by Japan.

The war ends

Hitler's strategy was to defeat the Soviet Union, conquer North Africa, and link up with the Japanese in the East. Roosevelt wanted to retake France, which had been occupied by Germany, and to force Hitler to fight on two fronts. Churchill, however, wanted to attack lower Europe, cut Hitler's lines to the East, and shut him off from Africa. The invasion of Europe was postponed, but Allied troops were sent into Africa. Eventually these forces crossed to the island of Sicily in the Mediterranean Sea and made a slow march up the Italian peninsula. At the same time, Allied troops landed on the beaches of France. The twin attacks forced an Italian collapse and the German surrender.

Meanwhile, American general Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964) drove the Japanese back and destroyed their fleet in the Pacific. After the German surrender, the war came to an end with the American atomic bomb explosion over the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

Final days

The decision to drop the bombs was not made by Roosevelt, but by the man who followed him, President Harry S. Truman (1884–1972). Although Roosevelt was elected to a fourth term in 1944, he died before World War II ended. He had gone to Warm Springs in 1945, completely exhausted after having returned from a conference of Allied leaders to set the terms for final peace. At the conference, he had forced other leaders to accept his scheme for a United Nations. On April 12, 1945, he suffered a fatal stroke when an artery ruptured in his brain.

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THEODORE ROOSEVELT

Born: October 27, 1858
New York, New York

Died: January 16, 1919

Oyster Bay, New York

American president, politician, and cavalryman

The first modern American president, Theodore Roosevelt was also the youngest and one of the most popular, important, and controversial. During his years in office he greatly expanded the power of the presidency.

Overcoming sickness

Theodore Roosevelt was born in New York City, New York, on October 27, 1858. His father was of an old Dutch mercantile (relating to trade) family in the city's affairs. An energetic, dominant figure, his father was the only man, young Roosevelt once said, that he "ever feared."

As an adult, Roosevelt was known for his great energy and athleticism. But as a young boy, he was very sick. He suffered from severe asthma, a respiratory disease that can cause difficulty breathing. Because of his sickness, he was educated at home by private tutors until the time that he entered college. At age twelve he followed his father's advice and began building his strength through weightlifting, horseback riding, boxing, wrestling, and hunting. He grew to love such activities throughout his life.

Early career

Roosevelt entered Harvard College in 1876. At Harvard, he developed his lifelong political and historical interests. Four months after his graduation in 1880, he married Alice Hathaway Lee, with whom he had a daughter.

In 1882 Roosevelt began the first of three political terms in the New York State Assem-

bly, one of the houses of government of New York state. Upon his retirement in 1884 he had become the leader of the Republican party's reform wing. As a reformer, he gained a reputation for fighting against political corruption (illegal or unethical practices).

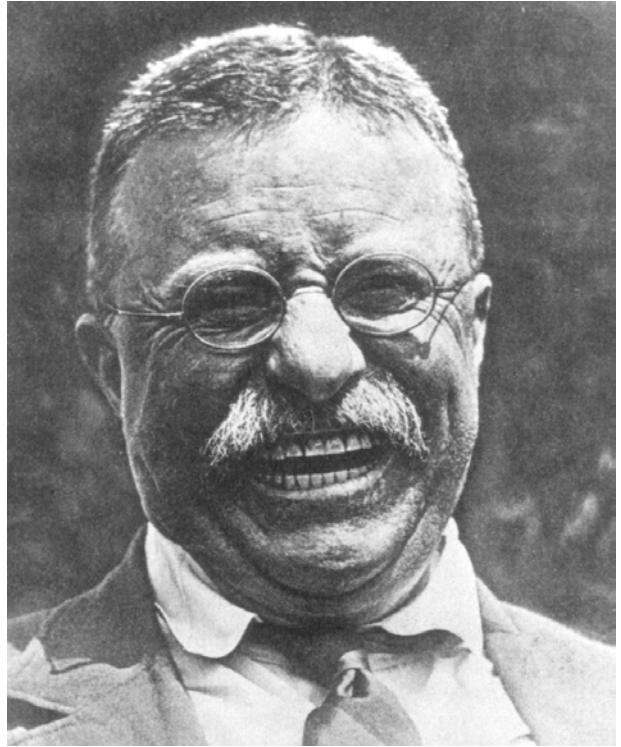
In his last term, Roosevelt was discouraged by the sudden deaths of his mother and his wife within hours of each other in February 1884. He retired to a ranch in the American West to study history, completing books on the American senator Thomas Hart Benton and the American statesman Gouverneur Morris. He also began writing his major work, the four-volume *Winning of the West*.

Politics and a romantic interest in childhood friend, Edith Carow, eventually drew Roosevelt back east. He married Carow in 1886. The couple had four sons and a daughter.

Serving the nation

In 1889 he was in Washington, D.C., where he had been appointed by President Benjamin Harrison (1833–1901) to serve on the Civil Service Commission. Under Roosevelt's leadership the group became dedicated to opening equal opportunities for all who were qualified to serve and work in government.

In 1895 Roosevelt returned to New York City to serve two years as president of the police board. He enforced the law with relentless efficiency and honesty, which often led him into arguments with the leaders of his own Republican party. He succeeded in modernizing the force, limiting corruption, and raising morale to new heights. However, he resigned from this position in 1897 to become President William McKinley's (1843–1901) assistant secretary of the Navy.



*Theodore Roosevelt.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

As assistant secretary, Roosevelt worked closely with senators in Congress to promote war against Spain. This conflict, the Spanish American War (1898), ended Spain's control of colonies in Latin America and resulted in America's gaining its own territories, including the Philippines. Roosevelt embraced the war mainly to expand America's global influence and because he had exaggerated notions of the heroic glories of war. Anxious to prove himself under fire, Roosevelt resigned from the navy in April 1898 to organize the 1st Volunteer Cavalry regiment. This horseback cavalry unit was known as the "Rough Riders." Roosevelt took command of the unit in Cuba

and distinguished himself in a bold charge up the hill next to San Juan. In late summer 1898 he returned home as a war hero and was nominated for governor of New York.

From governor to president

Roosevelt won election as governor in the fall of 1898. His two-year administration was full of positive activity. Winning the favor of public opinion and showing himself to be a master politician, he forced an impressive body of new laws and regulations through a reluctant New York Assembly and Senate.

In 1900 Roosevelt accepted the Republican vice presidential nomination. A landslide victory for McKinley and Roosevelt followed, but on September 6, 1901, McKinley was shot in Buffalo, New York, and he died eight days later. Roosevelt was sworn in as president.

First presidential term

Roosevelt's first three years in office were limited by the conservative policies of Republicans in Congress and the way in which he had come to power. Nevertheless, in 1902 Roosevelt shook the financial community by ordering proceedings against the association of railroad groups known as the Northern Securities Company. When a group of firms or corporations combines or cooperates in order to control prices or reduce competition, this action is known as a trust. Efforts to combat trusts, such as Roosevelt's actions against Northern Securities, are known as antitrust actions. By the time Roosevelt left office as president he had begun forty-three antitrust actions.

In his foreign policy, Roosevelt was intent on expanding the United States' global power. He established a somewhat tolerant government in the Philippines, settled an old

Alaskan boundary dispute with Canada on terms favorable to the United States, and took advantage of a revolution in Panama to acquire the Panama Canal Zone. Roosevelt's policies aimed at expanding American influence and limiting European power in the Western Hemisphere. The United States, he declared, assumed the right to intervene in the internal affairs of the Latin American nations in the event of "chronic wrongdoing" or "impotence [weakness or inability]."

In 1904 Roosevelt ran for a second, full presidential term. He won the election and carried in a great number of candidates to Congress through the influence of his popularity.

Second administration

Roosevelt pushed through a much more progressive program in his second term. One of his primary accomplishments was his drive to protect and to increase development of America's natural resources. By March 1909 Roosevelt's use of his executive power had resulted in the transfer of 125 million acres to the forest reserves. About half as many acres containing coal and mineral deposits had been placed under greater public control. Sixteen national monuments and fifty-one wildlife refuges had been established, and the number of national parks had been doubled.

In the area of foreign policy, Roosevelt's impact on the international scene continued during his second term. This was especially true in the Far East. Perceiving that Japan was destined to become a major Far Eastern power, he encouraged that country to serve as a force to keep the area stable. To this end he used his influence to end a war between Russia and Japan that took place in 1904–5. For his efforts, he received the Nobel Peace Prize.

Progressive movement

Rejecting suggestions that he run for reelection, Roosevelt selected William Howard Taft (1857–1930) as his successor. Taft was elected and this led to disputes within the Republican Party. Caught between the conservative supporters of Taft and the advanced progressive followers of himself and Senator Robert M. La Follette, Roosevelt set forth a radical program of social and economic reforms in 1910. Thereafter pressure to declare himself a candidate for the nomination in 1912 mounted until he reluctantly did so.

Although Roosevelt outpolled Taft easily in the Republican primaries, Taft's control of the party organization won him the nomination. Roosevelt's supporters then stormed out of the party and organized the Progressive Party, also known as the Bull Moose Party. During the campaign that fall, Roosevelt called forcefully for federal regulation of corporations, tax reform, river valley developments, and social justice for workers and the underprivileged. But the Democratic nominee, Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924), won the election.

Roosevelt died at his home in Oyster Bay, Long Island, on January 6, 1919. Today, his reputation as a domestic reformer remains secure.

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DIANA ROSS

Born: March 26, 1944

Detroit, Michigan

African American singer and actress

Diana Ross, once the lead singer for the Motown supergroup the Supremes, was the most successful female singer of the rock and roll era. In the next few decades, she continued to enjoy success with a solo career and numerous television and film appearances.

Early life

Diana Ross was born on March 26, 1944, in Detroit, Michigan. She was the second of six children of Fred and Ernestine Ross, who lived in Brewster-Douglass, one of Detroit's low income housing districts. Because of her tight-knit family Ross grew up virtually unaware of the harsh life that surrounded her. While her family was active in the Baptist church choir, Diana learned secular music (nonreligious music) from a cousin. She played baseball and took tap dance and majorette lessons at Brewster Center.

At age fourteen Ross tried out for a part in a school musical, but was turned down. The brief failure turned into good fortune, as she was invited to sing with the Primettes, a girls' vocal group that included Florence Ballard (1943–1976) and Mary Wilson (1944–)



Diana Ross.

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among its members. She sang with the Primettes throughout her high school years at Cass Technical High School, where she took sewing and fashion design courses. The male counterparts of the Primettes were called the Primes, and their members included Paul Williams (1939–1973) and Eddie Kendricks (1939–1992), who would later form part of the Motown superstar group the Temptations.

Primettes to Supremes

Yet another Motown superstar, Smokey Robinson (1940–), introduced Ross and the Primettes at Motown Studios, where they visited frequently until they met Motown producer

Berry Gordy (1929–). Gordy instructed Ross and her friends to finish high school and come back, which they did in 1962. Ross, Ballard, and Wilson then signed a contract with Motown, and Ballard selected a name for the group—the “Supremes”—a name that Ross disliked.

The Supremes released a number of singles and often sang background vocals for Marvin Gaye (1939–1984) and Mary Wells (1943–1992). “Let Me Go the Right Way” became the first Supremes song to register on the national charts, and it enabled the group to join the touring Motor Town Revue. “Where Did Our Love Go?” was their first national number one hit, selling over two-million singles, and the Supremes became the Revue’s opening act. Ross’s ambition and talent helped the trio turn the fierce competition for recording songs at Motown in their favor, and she became the group’s lead singer.

The Supremes proceeded to lead Motown and its outstanding artists into its heyday in the 1960s with a series of number one hits that included “Baby Love” (1964), “Stop! In the Name of Love” (1965), “Back in My Arms Again” (1965) and “I Hear a Symphony” (1966). A popular television group, the Supremes continued to skyrocket in popularity along with the Motown label, and their principal songwriting team—Eddie Holland, Lamont Dozier, and Brian Holland—produced many more of their number one songs, including “You Keep Me Hangin’ On” (1966), “You Can’t Hurry Love” (1966), “Love Is Here and Now You’re Gone” (1967), and “The Happening” (1967).

A solo act

Holland-Dozier-Holland left Motown in 1967, and the Supremes entered their next

phase with a new billing as Diana Ross and the Supremes. Florence Ballard was replaced by Cindy Birdsong, also in 1967. The year 1968 brought "Love Child," yet another top hit, this one written by the Supremes themselves. By this time rumors had begun to circulate about Ross leaving the group, and they reached their peak after her successful performance on the 1969 television special "Like Hep." Ross's last single with the group was the number one hit "Someday, We'll Be Together" (1969). She began her solo career after their last appearance together in January of 1970.

Things would only get better for Ross. Motown Records invested heavily in her new career, which debuted with "Reach Out and Touch (Somebody's Hand)" (1970). Many changes began to take place in her personal life as well. She had helped the Jackson Five get its start with Motown and Berry Gordy, and she had moved into her new Beverly Hills home. In 1971 Ross was married to Robert Silberstein, a pop-music manager, with whom she had three daughters—Rhonda, Tracee, and Chudney.

Ross was cast as the legendary jazz singer Billie Holiday (1915–1959) in the Motown film production *Lady Sings the Blues*. Her critically acclaimed performance earned her an Academy Award nomination for best actress. In 1973 she returned to her customary position atop the national record charts with "Touch Me in the Morning." Her next film was *Mahogany* (1975), from which her "Theme from Mahogany" (1976) was nominated for the Academy Awards' best song in a motion picture and topped the record charts again. After her third daughter was born in 1975 she and Silberstein were divorced.

Ross's hit parade continued with the number one "Love Hangover" (1976). She closed

out the decade with a Broadway show entitled *An Evening With Diana Ross* (1976–1977); a March 6, 1977, television special that featured her alone; and a portrayal as Dorothy in Motown's film production of the Broadway show *The Wiz* (1978).

Later career

Ross continued to perform in concerts, in Atlantic City and Las Vegas casinos, and at charity functions. Her 1980 single "Upside Down" was her sixteenth number one hit, a record surpassed only by the Beatles. She moved to Connecticut with her three daughters and in 1985 married Norwegian businessman Arne Naess, Jr. In 1989 Ross made a return to Motown with a new album titled *Workin' Overtime*, and in 1991 she worked with Stevie Wonder (1950–) and other artists to make *The Force Behind the Power*, a group of modern ballads. In January of 1994, she was highly praised for her role as a mental patient in the ABC television movie *Out of Darkness*.

But tragedy tainted Ross's newfound success in film in 1996 when her brother, Arthur Ross, and his wife, Patricia Ann Robinson, were found smothered to death on June 22, in Oak Park, Michigan. Ross and her family put up a reward of twenty-five thousand dollars for any information leading to an arrest. In September of 1996, two men, Ricky Brooks and Remel Howard, were charged with the killings. Police had no motive at the time, only to say that drugs were involved.

Ross's attempt to jumpstart her professional career has been a difficult one. In 2000, a much-hyped reunion tour with the Supremes was canceled after only a few shows. Concert promoters noted lack of ticket sales as the reason for the cancellation.

Another reason was the dispute between Ross and Mary Wilson, who turned down the reunion tour because she was offered considerably less money than Ross.

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DANTE GABRIEL ROSSETTI

Born: May 12, 1828

London, England

Died: April 9, 1882

Birchington-on-Sea, Kent, England

English painter and poet

The English painter and poet Dante Gabriel Rossetti was a cofounder of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, a band of painters that reacted against unimaginative and traditional historical paintings. His works show a passionate imagination, strongly contrasting Victorian art which was popular during the second half of the nineteenth century.

Childhood

Born on May 12, 1828, in London, England, of English-Italian parents, Dante Gabriel Rossetti was surrounded throughout his childhood in the atmosphere of medieval Italy, which drew heavily from art and literature from the sixth to fifteenth centuries. This influence became a major source of his subject matter and artistic inspiration later in his career. As a child, almost as soon as he could speak, he began composing plays and poems. He also liked to draw and was a bright student. After two years in the Royal Academy schools he studied briefly under Ford Madox Brown in 1848.

Shortly after Rossetti joined William Holman Hunt's studio in 1848, the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood was formed, in Hunt's words, "to do battle against the frivolous [silly] art of the day." An association of artists so varied in artistic style, technique, and expressive spirit as the Pre-Raphaelites could not long survive, and it was principally owing to Rossetti's forceful, almost hypnotic personality that the Brotherhood held together long enough to achieve the critical and popular recognition necessary for the success of its mission.

Rossetti's paintings

Rossetti did not have the natural technical talent that is seen in the small detail and brilliant color of a typical Pre-Raphaelite painting, and his early oil paintings, the *Girlhood of Mary Virgin* (1849) and the *Ecce Ancilla Domini* (1850), were produced only at the expense of great technical effort. In the less demanding technique of watercolor, however, Rossetti clearly revealed his imaginative power. The series of small watercolors of the 1850s produced such masterpieces as

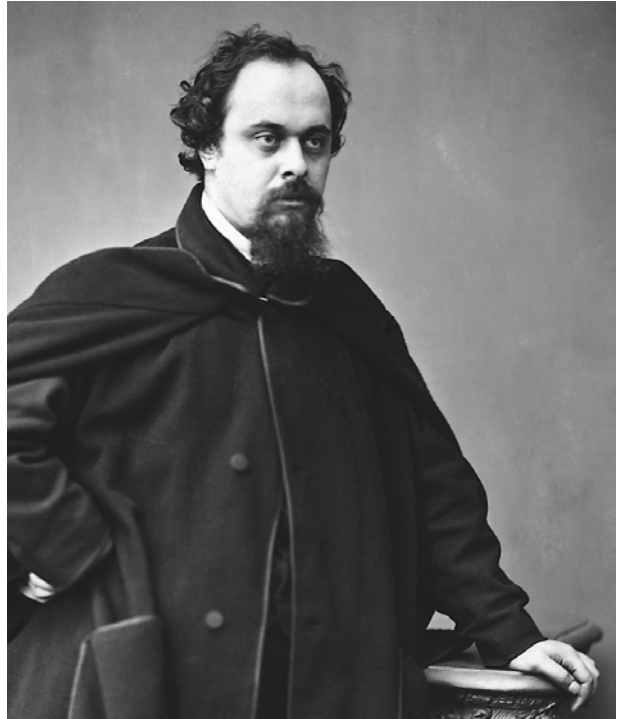
Dante's Dream (1856) and the *Wedding of St. George and the Princess Sabra* (1857).

In almost all of Rossetti's paintings of the 1850s he used Elizabeth Siddal as his model. Discovered in a hat shop in 1850, she was adopted by the Brotherhood as their ideal of feminine beauty. In 1852 she became exclusively Rossetti's model, and in 1860 his wife. Struggling with growing depression, she killed herself two years later. Rossetti buried a manuscript of his poems in her coffin, a characteristically dramatic gesture which he later regretted. *Beata Beatrix* (1863), a posthumous portrait (portrait done after her death) of Elizabeth Siddal is one of Rossetti's most deeply felt paintings. It is one of his last masterpieces and the first in a series of symbolic, female portraits, which declined gradually in quality as his interest in painting decreased.

Rossetti's poetry

Although poetry was simply a relaxation from painting early in Rossetti's career, writing later became more important to him, and in 1871 he wrote to fellow painter Ford Madox Brown, "I wish one could live by writing poetry." In 1861 he published his translations from Dante (1265–1321) and other early Italian poets, reflecting the medieval obsessions of his finest paintings. In 1869 the manuscript of his early poems was recovered from his wife's coffin and published the next year.

Rossetti's early poems under strong Pre-Raphaelite influence, such as "The Blessed Damozel" (1850; later revised) and "The Portrait," have an innocence and spiritual passion paralleled by his paintings of the 1850s. As his interest in painting declined, Rossetti's poetry improved, until in his later works, such as "Rose Mary" and "The White Ship"



Dante Gabriel Rossetti.

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(both included in *Ballads and Sonnets*, 1881), his use of richly colored word textures achieves fantastic expression and feeling.

Rossetti died on April 9, 1882, in Birchington-on-Sea, Kent, England. Rossetti had reached a position of artistic respect, and his spirit was a significant influence on the cultural developments of the late nineteenth century. Although his technique was not always the equal of his powerful feeling, his imaginative genius earned him a place in the ranks of England's most forward-thinking artists.

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JEAN-JACQUES ROUSSEAU

Born: June 28, 1712

Geneva, Switzerland

Died: July 2, 1778

Ermenonville, France

French philosopher, author, and composer

The Swiss-born philosopher (seeker of wisdom), author, political theorist (one who forms an explanation or theory on a subject based on careful study), and composer (writer of music) Jean-Jacques Rousseau ranks as one of the greatest figures of the French Enlightenment, a period of great artistic awakening in France.

Early years

Jean-Jacques Rousseau was born to Suzanne Bernard and Isaac Rousseau on June 28, 1712, in Geneva, Switzerland. Nine days later his mother died. At the age of three, he was reading French novels with his father, and Jean-Jacques acquired his passion for music from his aunt. His father fled Geneva to avoid imprisonment when Jean-Jacques was ten. By the time he was thirteen, his formal education had ended and he was sent to work for a notary public (someone legally empowered to certify documents), but he

was soon dismissed as fit only for watchmaking. Afterwards Rousseau spent three miserable years serving as a watchmaker, which he abandoned when he found himself unexpectedly locked out of the city by its closed gates. He faced the world with no money or belongings and no obvious talents.

Rousseau found himself on Palm Sunday, 1728, in Annecy, France, at the house of Louise Eleonore, Baronne de Warens. Rousseau lived under her roof off and on for thirteen years and was dominated by her influence. Charming and clever, a natural businesswoman, Madame de Warens was a woman who lived by her wits. She supported him and found him jobs, most of which he disliked. A friend, after examining the lad, informed her that he might aspire to become a village curé (priest) but nothing more. Still Rousseau read, studied, and thought. He pursued music and gave lessons, and for a time he worked as a tutor.

First publications and operas

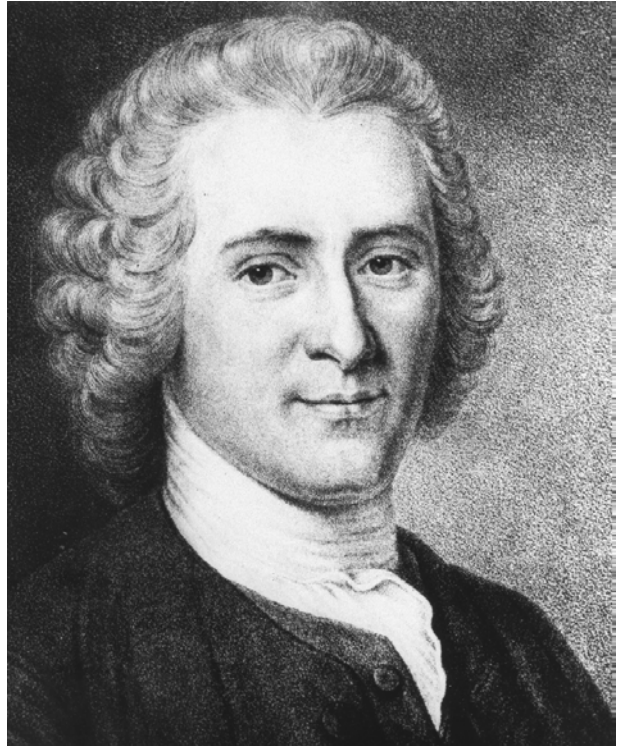
Rousseau's scheme for musical notation, published in 1743 as *Dissertation sur la musique moderne*, brought him neither fame nor fortune—only a fond letter from the Académie des Sciences. But his interest in music spurred him to write two operas—*Les Muses galantes* (1742) and *Le Devin du village* (1752)—and permitted him to write articles on music for Denis Diderot's (1713–1784) *Encyclopédie; the Lettre sur la musique française* (1753) and the *Dictionnaire de musique*, published in 1767.

From September 1743 until August 1744 Rousseau served as secretary to the French ambassador to Venice, Italy. He experienced at firsthand the stupidity and corrup-

tion (dishonesty and deception) involved in these offices. Rousseau spent the remaining years before his success with his first *Discours* in Paris, where he lived the poor lifestyle of a struggling intellectual.

In March 1745 Rousseau began an affair with Thérèse Le Vasseur. She was twenty-four years old, a maid at Rousseau's lodgings. She remained with him for the rest of his life—as mistress, housekeeper, mother of his children, and finally, in 1768, as his wife. They had five children—though some biographers have questioned whether any of them were Rousseau's. Apparently he regarded them as his own even though he assigned them to a hospital for abandoned children. Rousseau had no means to educate them, and he reasoned that they would be better raised as workers and peasants by the state.

By 1749 Rousseau had befriended the French philosopher Diderot. The publication of Diderot's *Lettre sur les aveugles* had resulted in his imprisonment at Vincennes, France. While walking to Vincennes to visit Diderot, Rousseau read an announcement of a prize being offered by the Dijon Academy for the best essay on the question, "Has progress of the arts and sciences contributed more to the corruption or to the purification of morals?" Rousseau won the prize of the Dijon Academy with his *Discours sur les sciences et les arts*. His famous "attack" on civilization called for sixty-eight articles defending the arts and sciences. Though he himself regarded this essay as "the weakest in argument and the poorest in harmony and proportion" of all his works, he nonetheless believed that it sounded one of his essential themes: the arts and sciences, instead of freeing men and increasing their happiness, had for the most part imprisoned men further.



Jean-Jacques Rousseau.

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Major works

Rousseau's novel *La Nouvelle Héloïse* (1761) attempted to portray in fiction the sufferings and tragedy that foolish education and restrictive social customs had among sensitive creatures. Rousseau's two other major writings—*L'émile ou de l'éducation* (1762) and *Du contrat social* (1762)—undertook the more difficult task of constructing an education and a social order that would enable men to be natural and free; that is, to enable men to recognize no bondage except the bondage of natural necessity. To be free in this sense, said Rousseau, was to be happy.

La Nouvelle Héloïse appeared in Paris in January 1761. Originally entitled *Lettres de deux amants, habitants d'une petite ville au pied des Alpes*, the work was structurally a novel in letters, after the fashion of the English author Samuel Richardson (1689–1761). The originality of the novel won it harsh reviews, but its sexual nature made it immensely popular with the public. It remained a best seller until the French Revolution in 1789, a massive uprising calling for political and social change throughout France.

The reputation of *La Nouvelle Héloïse* was nothing compared to the storm produced by *L'émile* and *Du contrat social*. Even today the ideas set forth in these works are revolutionary. Their expression, especially in *L'émile*, in a style both readable and alluring made them dangerous. *L'émile* was condemned (officially disapproved of) by the Paris Parliament (the governing body) and heavily criticized by the archbishop of Paris. Both of the books were burned by the authorities in Geneva, Switzerland.

Exile and death

Forced to flee from France, Rousseau sought refuge at Yverdon in the territory of Bern. There he was kicked out by the Bernese authorities and would spend the next few years seeking a safe place to live. Finally, British philosopher David Hume (1711–1776) helped Rousseau settle in Wotton, Derbyshire, England, in 1766. Hume managed to obtain from George III (1738–1820) a yearly pension (sum of money) for Rousseau. But Rousseau, falsely believing Hume to be in league with his Parisian and Genevan enemies, not only refused the pension but also openly broke with the philosopher.

Rousseau returned to France in June 1767 under the protection of the Prince de Conti. Wandering from place to place, he at last settled in 1770 in Paris. There he made a living, as he often had in the past, by copying music. By December 1770 the *Confessions*, upon which he had been working since 1766, was completed, and he gave readings from this work at various private homes. His last work, *Les Rêveries du promeneur solitaire*, begun in 1776 and unfinished at his death, records how Rousseau, an outcast from society, recaptured “serenity, tranquility, peace, even happiness.”

In May 1778 Rousseau accepted Marquis de Girardin's hospitality at Ermenonville near Paris. There, with Thérèse at his bedside, he died on July 2, 1778, probably from uremia, a severe kidney disease. Rousseau was buried on the Île des Peupliers at Ermenonville. In October 1794 his remains were transferred to the Panthéon in Paris. Thérèse, surviving him by twenty-two years, died in 1801 at the age of eighty.

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CARL ROWAN

Born: August 11, 1925

Ravenscroft, Tennessee

Died: September 23, 2000

Washington, D.C.

African American diplomat and journalist

Journalist and author Carl Rowan was one of the first African American officers in the U.S. Navy. He also served as U.S. ambassador (representative) to Finland and director of the U.S. Information Agency.

Early life and education

Carl Thomas Rowan was born on August 11, 1925, in Ravenscroft, Tennessee. He was one of five children born to Thomas David and Johnnie B. Rowan and was raised in McMinnville, Tennessee. As a youth he worked hoeing grass for ten cents an hour. Rowan was determined to get a good education. He graduated from Bernard High School in 1942 as class president and valedictorian (having the highest rank in the class). Rowan then moved in with his grandparents in Nashville, Tennessee, and worked in a hospital for tuberculosis (an infection of the lungs) patients before enrolling in the Tennessee Agricultural and Industrial State College in the fall of 1942.

Rowan, in his freshman year, participated in a training program that led to his being chosen as one of the first fifteen African American persons in history to gain a commission (a certificate giving military rank) as an officer in the U.S. Navy. He was trained at Oberlin College in Ohio and at the Naval Midshipmen School at Fort Schuyler, New

York, and he served during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between France, Great Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union on one side, and Germany, Italy, and Japan on the other). After leaving the Navy, Rowan returned to Oberlin College, earning his bachelor's degree in mathematics in 1947. He went on to receive his master's degree in journalism from the University of Minnesota. In 1950 Rowan married Vivien Louise Murphy, a public health nurse; they had three children.

Member of the media

Rowan then joined the Minneapolis (Minnesota) *Tribune* as a copyreader. He became a general assignment reporter in 1950. Among his early pieces were a series of columns entitled *How Far from Slavery?*, which he wrote after returning to the South to study issues of race. The articles contributed to Rowan being the first African American to receive the Minneapolis "Outstanding Young Man" award. They also served as the basis for his first book, *South of Freedom* (1952).

Rowan spent 1954 writing columns from India, Pakistan, and Southeast Asia. These led to a second book, *The Pitiful and the Proud* (1956). A third book, *Go South to Sorrow*, was published in 1957. Rowan was the only journalist to receive the Sigma Delta Chi award for newspaper reporting in three straight years: for general reporting in 1954, for best foreign correspondence in 1955, and for his coverage of the political unrest in Southeast Asia in 1956.

Government service

In January 1961 Rowan was appointed deputy assistant secretary of state for public



Carl Rowan.

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affairs in the administration of President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963). He was involved in the area of news coverage of U.S. military involvement in Vietnam (1955–75; from 1961 to 1970 the United States aided South Vietnam in its war against Communist North Vietnam) and accompanied then Vice President Lyndon Johnson (1908–1973) on a tour through Southeast Asia, India, and Europe.

Rowan went on to serve as ambassador to Finland (January 1963–January 1964) and as director of the U.S. Information Agency (January 1964–July 1965), the vast government communications network. In the latter post, Rowan became the first African American to

hold a seat on the National Security Council and oversaw a staff of thirteen thousand. In 1965 Rowan resigned to accept an offer to write a national column for the Field Newspaper Service Syndicate and to do three weekly radio commentaries (expressions of opinion) for the Westinghouse Broadcasting Company.

Unafraid to express opinions

Rowan developed a reputation for being independent and often controversial (causing dispute). He urged Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968) to change his antiwar stance because he felt it was hurting the civil rights movement, and he called for J. Edgar Hoover (1895–1972), director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), to resign. His column reached nearly half of all homes receiving newspapers in the United States. He appeared on many public affairs television programs, served as a roving reporter for *Reader's Digest* magazine, and was a popular public speaker.

Rowan once told *Publisher's Weekly*, "You gotta get tired before you retire," and he went on to publish several more books, including *Dream Makers, Dream Breakers: The World of Thurgood Marshall* and *The Coming Race War in America: A Wake-Up Call*. In 1987 he started Project Excellence, a program designed to make it easier for top-performing African American high school students to attend college. By 2000 the program had given out twenty-six million dollars in scholarships to over eleven hundred fifty students. Rowan died of natural causes in Washington, D.C., on September 23, 2000.

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J. K. ROWLING

Born: July 31, 1965

Chipping Sodbury, England

English writer

J. K. Rowling is an English author of novels for young people, and caused an overnight sensation with her first book, *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone* (. . . *Sorcerer's Stone* in the United States), which rose to the top of the children's best-seller lists in 1998. Even before publication, publishers in the United States were competing for rights to the book, with the top bidder paying one hundred thousand dollars—the most ever for a first novel by a children's book author.

A British upbringing

Born near Bristol, England, Joanne K. Rowling grew up with a younger sister and an intense interest in storytelling. Rabbits played a large part in her early tales, for Rowling and her sister badly wanted a rabbit. Her first story, at age five or six, involved a rabbit named, quite logically, Rabbit, who got the measles (a

contagious virus that occurs in children) and visited his friend, a giant bee named Miss Bee. Rowling said in *J. K. Rowling: The Wizard Behind Harry Potter*, "Ever since Rabbit and Miss Bee, I have wanted to be a writer, though I rarely told anyone so. I was afraid they'd tell me I didn't have a hope."

Two moves took the Rowling family eventually to the town of Tutshill near Chepstow in the Forest of Dean along the border of England and Wales. This brought a longtime country-living dream to reality for Rowling's parents, both Londoners, and the nine-year-old Rowling learned to love the countryside. She and her sister could wander unsupervised amid the fields and play along the River Wye. Rowling once noted that the only problem with her new life was school. It was an old-fashioned school with roll-top desks and a teacher who frightened Rowling.

From Tutshill Primary, Rowling went to Wyedean Comprehensive School. A quiet and unathletic child, English was her favorite subject, and she created stories for her friends at lunchtime, tales involving heroic deeds. Contact lenses soon sorted out any feelings of inferiority in the young Rowling; writing became more impulsive and less of a hobby in her teenage years. Attending Exeter University, Rowling studied French after her parents had advised her that bilingualism (speaking two languages) would lead to a successful career as a secretary.

Working at Amnesty International, Rowling discovered one thing to like about life as a secretary: she could use the computer to type up her own stories during quiet times. At age twenty-six, Rowling gave up her office job to teach English in Portugal. It was there that she began yet another story that might become a



J. K. Rowling.

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book, about a boy who is sent off to wizard school. All during the time she spent in Portugal, Rowling took notes on this story and added bits and pieces to the life of her main character, Harry Potter. In Portugal she also met the man who became her husband, and they had a daughter. They later got divorced.

Of naps and "Harry Potter"

Back in England, Rowling decided to settle in Edinburgh and prepared to raise her daughter as a single mother. Accepting a job as a French teacher, she set herself a goal: to finish her novel before her teaching job began. This was no easy task with an active toddler in

hand. Rowling confined her writing to her daughter's nap time, much of it spent in coffee-houses where the understanding management allowed her space for her papers. She was able to send off her typed manuscript to two publishers before beginning her teaching post, but it was not until several months later that the happy news arrived: her book, *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone*, would be published in England. And then a few months later, the American rights were bought for an amazing price, and Rowling said good-bye to teaching.

Harry Potter, an orphan, has led a miserable life with the Dursley family, his aunt, uncle, and cousin, who force him to live in a broom closet under the stairs. Small, skinny, and wearing glasses, Harry is an unlikely hero. The only thing physically interesting about Harry is the lightning-shaped scar on his forehead. One day Harry gets a letter telling him that he has been admitted to Hogwarts School of Witchcraft and Wizardry. Thus begins the magical story of Harry Potter. Rayma Turton in *Magpies* called the book "a ripping yarn," and a "school story with a twist."

Sequels prove equally popular

Even as enthusiastic reviews were pouring in from America, Rowling's second installment of the "Harry Potter" saga, *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*, was published in England to another rave review. The third installment of the series, *Harry Potter and the Prisoner of Azkaban*, begins when Harry is thirteen and starting his third year at Hogwarts School for Witchcraft and Wizardry. Harry's life-threatening adventures in *The Prisoner of Azkaban*, the fourth Harry Potter novel, indicated a subtle but distinct shift away from the lightheartedness that charac-

terizes the first two novels. Such a shift was “inevitable,” Rowling admitted in a *School Library Journal* interview. “If you are writing about Good and Evil, there comes a point where you have to get serious.”

In November 2001, Harry Potter gained even more fame when *Harry Potter and the Sorcerer’s Stone* graced the big screen as a major motion picture. Rowling’s magical creations cast a spell over theatergoers as the movie was both a commercial and critical success. Rowling lives in Scotland with her daughter, Jessica, and second husband, Neil Murray, whom she married in December 2000. She is currently working on the remaining novels in the “Harry Potter” series.

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PETER PAUL RUBENS

Born: June 28, 1577

Siegen, Westphalia, Germany

Died: May 30, 1640

Antwerp, Belgium

Flemish painter and diplomat

The Flemish painter and diplomat Peter Paul Rubens was one of the supreme geniuses in the history of painting.

Childhood

Peter Paul Rubens was born to Jan Rubens and Maria Pypelinckx on June 28, 1577. Jan Rubens was a lawyer of Antwerp who, because of his religious preference, fled to Germany in 1568 to escape persecution. In Cologne, Germany, he had an affair with the wife of William the Silent, Prince of Orange, and as a result he was thrown into prison. Released after two years, due to the devoted efforts of his wife, Jan Rubens was allowed to live in Siegen, in Westphalia, Germany, where Peter Paul was born. The family lived for some years in Cologne until Jan Rubens died in 1587, at which time his widow returned to Antwerp, Belgium, bringing her three children with her.

After a period of schooling which included instruction in Latin and Greek, the young Rubens became a messenger to a noblewoman, Marguerite de Ligne, Countess of Lalaing. This early experience of court life, though he was glad to be released from it, was undoubtedly useful to the future artist, much of whose time would be passed in noble and royal circles. Returning to his home in Antwerp, he had decided to be a painter. He studied under three masters—Tobias Verhaecht, Adam van Noort, and Otto van Veen (1556–1629)—and in 1598 was accepted as a master in the Antwerp Guild of St. Luke, the painters’ guild, or association.

Italian Period, 1600–1608

In Rome, Italy, Rubens completed his education as an artist, studying with unfailing



Peter Paul Rubens.

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enthusiasm the sculptures of antiquity (the period before the sixth century) and especially the paintings of Raphael (1483–1520) and Michelangelo (1475–1564). During his first stay in Rome, from 1601 to 1602, he painted three altarpieces for the Church of Sta Croce in Gerusalemme (now in the Hospital at Grasse).

Late in 1605 Rubens was again in Rome; he decided to remain there for almost three years. During this time he was commissioned (hired) to decorate the high altar of Santa Maria in Vallicella—an extraordinary honor for a foreigner. His first solution, an altarpiece showing the Madonna and Child with St. Gregory and other saints (now in the

Museum at Grenoble), did not make a good impression owing to unfavorable lighting conditions in the church, and he replaced it by a set of three pictures painted on slate. In October 1608, before this work had been unveiled, there came word that Rubens's mother was seriously ill, and the artist left at once for Antwerp. Though he did not know it at the time, he was never to see Italy again.

Antwerp period, 1609–1621

Rubens arrived at his home to learn that his mother had died before he left Rome. Although it was surely his intention to return to Italy, he soon found reasons for remaining in Antwerp. The Archduke Albert, the acting ruler of the Spanish Netherlands, appointed him court painter with special privileges. In October 1609 Rubens married Isabella Brant, and a year later he purchased a house in Antwerp. The charming painting *Rubens and His Wife in the Honeysuckle Arbor* was painted about this time.

The first big project to be undertaken after Rubens's return from Italy was the *Raising of the Cross* (1609–1611), a triptych, or three-paneled piece, for the church of St. Walburga (now in the Cathedral of Antwerp). With this bold and intensely dramatic work Rubens at once established himself as the leading master of the city. It was followed by another triptych, equally large and no less successful, the *Descent from the Cross* (1611–1614) in the Cathedral.

Rubens's workshop was now in full operation, and he was able, with the aid of his pupils and assistants, to achieve an astonishing output of pictures. The most brilliant of his assistants was Anthony Van Dyck (1599–1641), who entered his studio about

1617 or 1618 and who helped in the execution of a number of important commissions.

In 1620 Rubens was commissioned to execute a series of thirty-nine ceiling paintings for the Jesuit church in Antwerp. It was the largest decorative cycle that the artist had yet undertaken, and as such it called into play all his powers of invention and organization. The entire complex of ceiling paintings was destroyed by fire in 1718.

International fame, 1621–1630

In 1622 Rubens was in Paris, France, to sign a contract for the decoration of two great galleries in the Luxembourg Palace, the residence of the queen mother, Marie de' Medici (1573–1642). The first of these projects, the incomparable series of twenty-one large canvases illustrating the life of Marie (now in the Louvre, Paris), was finished in 1625. The subject matter was decidedly unpromising, but Rubens succeeded in transforming the dreary history of the queen into a brilliant and spectacular one.

There were other decorative schemes to occupy Rubens's attention during this period. For King Louis XIII (1601–1643) of France he designed the tapestry series, the *History of Constantine the Great*, and several years later Infanta Isabella commissioned him to design an even larger tapestry cycle, the *Triumph of the Eucharist*, for the Convent of the Descalzas Reales in Madrid, Spain.

Rubens's diplomatic (having to do with international relations) activity, which had begun some time earlier, reached a peak in the years from 1628 to 1630, when he played an important part in bringing about peace between England and Spain. As the agent of

the Infanta (the daughters of Spanish rulers), he went first to Spain, where in addition to carrying out his political duties he found a new and enthusiastic art patron (a supporter) in King Philip IV (1605–1665). His mission to England was equally successful. Charles I (1600–1649) knighted the artist-diplomat, and the University of Cambridge awarded him an honorary master of arts degree. Rubens returned to Antwerp in March 1630.

Last years, 1630–1640

Isabella Brant, Rubens's first wife, had died in 1626. In December 1630 he married Helena Fourment, a girl of sixteen. Though he had hoped, on returning to Antwerp, to withdraw from political life, he acted once more as confidential agent for the Infanta in the frustrating and unsuccessful negotiations with the Dutch. At length he succeeded in being released from diplomatic employment. In 1635 he purchased a country estate, the Castle of Steen, located some miles south of Antwerp, and from there on divided his time between this country retreat and his studio in town.

In 1635, when the new governor of the Netherlands, Cardinal Infante Ferdinand, visited Antwerp, Rubens was given the task of preparing the temporary street decorations. Swiftly bringing together teams of artists and craftsmen to work from his designs, the master created an amazing series of painted theaters and victorious arches, which were far greater than expected in their magnificence. His last great project was a vast cycle of mythological (having to do with stories that are handed down through generations) paintings for the decoration of Philip IV's hunting lodge near Madrid, the Torre de la Parada.

Rubens was increasingly troubled by arthritis (a persistent swelling of the joints) toward the end of his life, which eventually persuaded him to give up painting altogether. One of the most moving paintings of the last years is the self-portrait in Vienna, in which the master, though already touched by suffering, wears an air of calm and peace. He died in Antwerp on May 30, 1640.

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WILMA RUDOLPH

Born: June 23, 1940

St. Bethlehem, Tennessee

Died: November 12, 1994

Brentwood, Tennessee

African American track and field athlete, sports manager, and coach

The African American athlete Wilma Rudolph made history in the 1960 Summer Olympic games in Rome,

Italy, when she became the first American woman to win three gold medals in the track and field competition.

An uphill battle

Almost every circumstance was stacked against Wilma Rudolph from the day she was born on June 23, 1940. Her father, Ed Rudolph, had eleven children by a first marriage while his second marriage yielded eight more, of which Wilma was the fifth. At birth she weighed only four-and-a-half pounds. Her mother, Blanche, a housemaid, feared for Wilma's survival from the outset. The family lived in tiny St. Bethlehem, Tennessee, a farming community about forty-five miles southeast of Nashville, Tennessee. Shortly after Wilma was born, the Rudolphs moved to nearby Clarksville, Tennessee, where they lived in town. Her father worked as a porter on railroad cars, and her mother cleaned houses six days a week. Older siblings helped care for the sickly baby who had come into the world prematurely.

At the age of four, Wilma was severely weakened when she contracted polio, a disease that attacks the central nervous system and often causes developmental problems in children. She survived the illness, but she lost the use of her left leg. Specialists in Nashville recommended routine massage therapy for the limb, and Mrs. Rudolph learned it and taught it to some of the older children. Thus, Wilma's legs were massaged a number of times each day, helping her to regain strength. Rudolph's confidence may have flagged at times in her childhood when it seemed she might spend a lifetime in leg braces or even a wheelchair. Through the efforts of her devoted family—and her own

steely determination to strengthen herself—she rose from disability to Olympic glory.

Staged a comeback from physical disability

After five years of treatment, Wilma one day stunned her doctors when she removed her leg braces and walked by herself. Soon she was joining her brothers and sisters in basketball games in the Rudolph backyard and running street races against other children her age. “By the time I was 12,” she told the *Chicago Tribune*, “I was challenging every boy in our neighborhood at running, jumping, everything.”

Rudolph desperately wanted to play high school basketball, but she simply could not convince the coach to put her on the team. When she finally worked up the nerve to ask him for a tryout, he agreed to coach her privately for ten minutes each morning. Still she was cut in her freshman year. She finally earned a position on the roster at Burt High School in Clarksville, Mississippi, because the coach wanted her older sister to play. Her father agreed to allow her sister to join the team only if Wilma was allowed to join, too.

Rudolph soon blossomed into a fine basketball player. As a sophomore she scored 803 points in twenty-five games, a new state record for a player on a girls’ basketball team. She also started running in track meets and found that her greatest strengths lay in the sprint. She was only fourteen when she attracted the attention of Ed Temple, the women’s track coach at Tennessee State University. Temple told her she had the potential to become a great runner, and during the summer breaks from high school she trained with him and the students at Tennessee State.



Wilma Rudolph.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

An Olympian

The Olympic Games were a far-off dream to a young African American woman in Tennessee. She was a teenager before she even learned what the Olympics were. Rudolph caught on fast, though. In four seasons of high school track meets, she never lost a race. At the tender age of sixteen, she qualified for the Summer Olympics in Melbourne, Australia, and came home with a bronze medal.

Rudolph entered Tennessee State University in the fall of 1957, with the intention of majoring in elementary education. All of her spare time was consumed by running, however. The pace took its toll, and she

found herself too ill to run through most of the 1958 season. She rebounded in 1959, only to pull a muscle at a crucial meet between the United States and the Soviet Union, the former country made up of Russia and several smaller nations. Ed Temple, who would prove to be a lifelong friend, supervised her recovery, and by 1960 Rudolph was ready to go to Rome, Italy.

At the 1960 Olympics, Rudolph won all three of her gold medals in very dramatic fashion. In both the 100-meter dash and the 200-meter dash, she finished at least three yards in front of her closest competitor. She tied the world record in the 100-meter and set a new Olympic record in the 200. Rudolph also brought her 400-meter relay team from behind to win the gold. The French called her "La Gazelle." Without question, Rudolph's achievements at the 1960 Olympic Games remain a stand-out performance in the history of Olympic competition.

After the fame

Wilma Rudolph became an instant celebrity in Europe and America. Crowds gathered wherever she was scheduled to run. She was given ticker tape parades, an official invitation to the White House by President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963), and a dizzying round of dinners, awards, and television appearances.

Rudolph made one decision that she stuck to firmly: she refused to participate in the 1964 Olympic games. She felt that she might not be able to duplicate her achievement of 1960, and she did not want to appear to be fading. She retired from amateur athletics in 1963, finished her college work, and became a school teacher and athletic coach.

She also became a mother, raising four children on her own after two divorces.

Talent didn't go to waste

For more than two decades, Wilma Rudolph sought to impart the lessons she learned about amateur athletics to other young men and women. She was the author of an autobiography, *Wilma*, which was published in 1977—and the subject of a television movie based on her book. She lectured in every part of America and even served in 1991 as an ambassador to the European celebration of the dismantling of the Berlin Wall, the wall that for three decades separated East from West Berlin, Germany. Rudolph helped to open and run inner-city sports clinics and served as a consultant to university track teams. She also founded her own organization, the Wilma Rudolph Foundation, dedicated to promoting amateur athletics.

Rudolph was a member of the United States Olympic Hall of Fame and the National Track and Field Hall of Fame. She traveled frequently and was well known for her motivational speeches to youngsters.

On November 12, 1994, Wilma Rudolph died at her home in Brentwood, Tennessee, of a brain tumor. She is survived by two sons, two daughters, six sisters, two brothers, and a truly inspirational legacy.

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SALMAN RUSHDIE

Born: June 19, 1947

Bombay, India

Indian writer

The works of the Indian author Salman Rushdie often focused on outrages of history and particularly of religions. His book *The Satanic Verses* earned him a death sentence from the Iranian leader Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini (1900–1989).

Early life and education

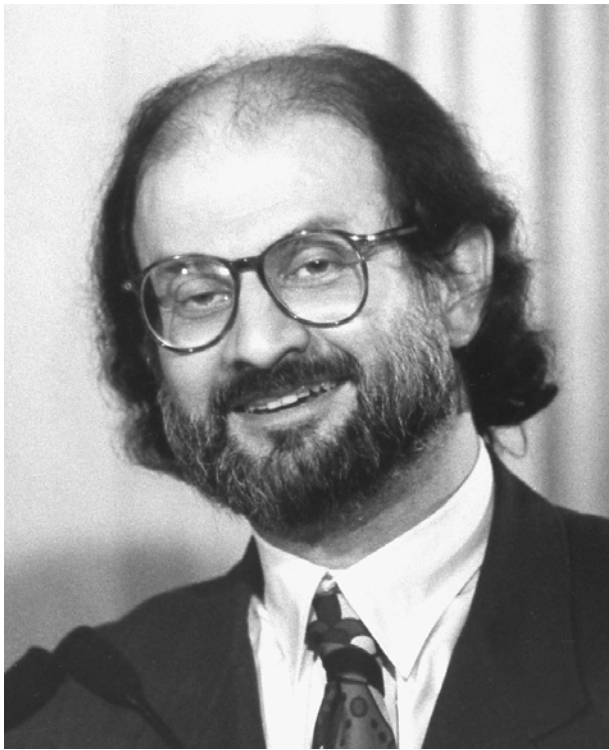
Ahmed Salman Rushdie was born on June 19, 1947, in Bombay, India, the only son among Anis Ahmed Rushdie and Negin Butt's four children. His father was a businessman who had been educated at Cambridge University in England. Rushdie's childhood was happy and he was always surrounded by books. Rushdie remembers wanting to be a writer at age five. He was sent to England at age fourteen to attend Rugby, a private school. His fellow students tormented him both because he was Indian and because he had no athletic ability.

Rushdie later attended Cambridge, as his father had done, and his experience there was much more positive. He received his master's degree in history in 1968. After a brief career as an actor he worked as a free-lance advertising copywriter in England from 1970 to 1980. The experience of expatriation (living outside one's country of birth), which he shared with many writers of his generation who were born in the Third World, is an important theme in his work.

First books

Rushdie's first published book, *Grimus* (1975), was classified as science fiction by many critics. It is the story of Flapping Eagle, a Native American who is given the gift of immortality (eternal life) and goes on a journey to find the meaning of life. Although the book received positive reviews, it did not sell very well. Rushdie continued working as a part-time ad writer over the five years it took him to write *Midnight's Children*. He quit his job after finishing the novel without even knowing if it would be published.

Released first in the United States in 1981, *Midnight's Children* is in part the story of a baby who was not only the result of an extramarital affair (an affair between a married person and someone other than his or her spouse) but who was then switched at birth with a second child from a similar situation. The hero is also caught between the two great Indian religions, Islam and Hinduism. Finally, he spends his life moving back and forth between the Indian republic and Pakistan. The book received rave reviews in the United States and was a popular and critical success in England. Rushdie followed this up with *Shame* (1983), the story of a Pakistani



Salman Rushdie.

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woman, Sufiya Zinobia, who blushes so hotly with embarrassment at her nation's history that her body boils her bath water and burns the lips of men who attempt to kiss her.

Angers Muslim leaders

Rushdie's *The Satanic Verses* (1988) opens with the survival of two Indian men who fall out of the sky after their jumbo jet to England is blown up in midair by terrorists. These two characters then gain divine and demonic powers. Rushdie's habit of using the atrocities of history—especially involving religion—made *The Satanic Verses* a book of frightening precognition (describing events that have not

yet occurred): another character in the novel is a writer sentenced to death by a religious leader.

The title of the novel refers to verses from the Koran (the holy book of the Islamic faith), which were removed by later Islamic historians, describing a time when the Arab prophet (one with religious insight) Mohammed (the founder of Islam) briefly changed his belief in a single god and allowed mention to be made of three local goddesses. This was considered offensive and an insult to Islam by the Iranian leader Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, who issued a *fatwa*, or religious order, calling for Rushdie's death. Rushdie went into hiding and received round-the-clock protection from British security guards. Rushdie's wife of thirteen months, author Marianne Wiggins, went into hiding with him when the death threat was announced. She soon emerged and announced that their marriage was over.

Khomeini's death threat extended not only to Rushdie himself, but to the publishers of *The Satanic Verses*, any bookseller who carried it, and any Muslim who publicly approved of its release. Several bookstores in England and America received bomb threats, and the novel was briefly removed from the shelves of America's largest book-selling chains. Two Islamic officials in London, England, were murdered for questioning the correctness of Rushdie's death sentence on a talk show. Many book-burnings were held throughout the world.

Rushdie himself, and his possible disguises in hiding, became the subject of many jokes. For example, during the 1990 Academy Awards presentation, which was seen

worldwide by an estimated one billion viewers, comedian Billy Crystal (1947–) joked that “the lovely young woman” who usually hands Oscar statuettes to their recipients “is, of course, Salman Rushdie.”

Working under a death sentence

In 1990 Rushdie released the fantasy (a made-up story) novel *Haroun and the Sea of Stories*, written for his son by his first marriage. That same year Rushdie publicly embraced Islam and apologized to those offended by the *The Satanic Verses*. He made several appearances in London bookstores to autograph his newest work. But even after the Ayatollah's death, his successor, Iran's President Hashemi Rafsanjani, refused to lift the death sentence. Rushdie continued to appear in public only occasionally, and then under heavy security.

Rushdie continued to live an isolated life. He remarried, however, and became a father for the second time. Occasionally he made radio appearances, but they were usually unannounced. Rushdie's novel entitled *The Moor's Last Sigh* was published in 1995. This book drew angry reactions from Hindu militants (those engaged in war) in India. In 1998, as part of an attempt to restore relations between Iran and England, the Iranian foreign minister, while repeating criticism of *The Satanic Verses*, announced that Iran had no intention of harming Rushdie or encouraging anyone to do so. A relieved Rushdie said he would end his nine years of seclusion.

In 1999 Rushdie published *The Ground Beneath Her Feet*, the story of a famous singer lost during an earthquake. Rushdie described it as “a novel of our age” in an interview with CNN's Jonathan Mann. In April 2000 Rushdie created a sensation by visiting India,

his first visit to his birthplace since he was four years old. In November 2001 Rushdie told the *Manchester Guardian* that most Muslims' view of Islam is “jumbled” and “half-examined.” He criticized Muslims for blaming “outsiders” for the world's problems and said that they needed to accept the changes in the modern world to truly achieve freedom.

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BABE RUTH

Born: February 6, 1895

Baltimore, Maryland

Died: August 16, 1948

New York, New York

American baseball player

Babe Ruth, an American baseball player, was one of sport's most famous athletes and an enduring legend.



Babe Ruth.

Reproduced by permission of Getty Images.

Early years

George Herman Ruth Jr., later known as Babe Ruth, was born on February 6, 1895, in Baltimore, Maryland, one of George Herman Ruth and Kate Schamberger's eight children. Of the eight, only George Jr. and a sister, Mamie, survived. Ruth's father owned a tavern, and running the business left him and his wife with little time to watch over their children. Young George began skipping school and getting into trouble. He also played baseball with other neighborhood children whenever possible.

At the age of seven Ruth was sent to the St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys, a school that took care of boys who had problems at home. It was run by the Brothers (men who had taken vows to lead religious lives) of a Catholic order of teachers. Ruth wound up staying there off and on until he was almost twenty. At St. Mary's, Ruth studied, worked in a tailor shop, and learned values such as sharing and looking out for smaller, weaker boys. He also developed his baseball skills with the help of one of the Brothers.

Signs baseball contract

Ruth became so good at baseball (both hitting and as a left-handed pitcher) that the Brothers wrote a letter to Jack Dunn, manager of the Baltimore Orioles minor league baseball team, inviting him to come see Ruth. After watching Ruth play for half an hour, Dunn offered him a six-month contract for six hundred dollars. Dunn also had to sign papers making him Ruth's guardian until the boy turned twenty-one.

When Dunn brought Ruth to the Oriole locker room for the first time in 1914, one of the team's coaches said, "Well, here's Jack's newest babe now!" The nickname stuck, and Babe Ruth stuck with the team as well, performing so well that he was moved up later that year to the Boston Red Sox of the American League. Ruth pitched on championship teams in 1915 and 1916, but he was such a good hitter that he was switched to the outfield so that he could play every day. (Pitchers usually play only every four or five days because of the strain that pitching has on their throwing arm.) In 1919 his twenty-nine home runs set a new record and led to the beginning of a new playing style. Up to that point home

runs occurred very rarely, and baseball's best players were usually pitchers and high-average "singles" hitters. By 1920 Ruth's frequent home runs made the "big bang" style of play more popular and successful.

Becomes legend with the Yankees

In 1920 Babe Ruth was sold to the New York Yankees for one hundred thousand dollars and a three hundred fifty thousand dollar loan. This was a huge event which increased his popularity. In New York his achievements and personality made him a national celebrity. Off the field he enjoyed eating, drinking, and spending or giving away his money outright; he earned and spent thousands of dollars. By 1930 he was paid eighty thousand dollars for a season, a huge sum for that time, and his endorsement income (money received in return for public support of certain companies' products) usually added up to be more than his baseball salary.

Ruth led the Yankees to seven American League championships and four World Series titles. He led the league in home runs many times, and the 60 he hit in 1927 set a record for the 154-game season. (Roger Maris hit 61 home runs in a 162-game season in 1961.) Ruth's lifetime total of 714 home runs is second only to the 755 hit by Hank Aaron (1934–). With a .342 lifetime batting average for 22 seasons of play, many consider Babe Ruth the game's greatest player.

When Ruth's career ended in 1935, he had hoped to become a major league manager, but his reputation for being out of control made teams afraid to hire him. In 1946 he became head of the Ford Motor Company's junior baseball program. He died in New York City on August 16, 1948.

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NOLAN RYAN

Born: January 31, 1947

Refugio, Texas

American baseball player

Nolan Ryan is considered one of the best pitchers of all time, known both for his fastball and as a role model for players and fans alike.

Early years

Lynn Nolan Ryan Jr. was born January 31, 1947, in Refugio, Texas. He was the

youngest of six children of Lynn Nolan Ryan Sr. and Martha Ryan. Ryan grew up in Alvin, Texas, where his father worked for an oil company and delivered papers for the *Houston Post*. Ryan credits his father for instilling in him the value of a strong work ethic. In second grade, Ryan began helping his father on his paper routes.

Much of Ryan's youth was consumed by sports. While he spent two years on his high school basketball team, it was baseball that was his passion. During his senior year, he dominated the pitching mound. He amassed a 20–4 record, batted .700 in the state tournament, and was named to the All-State team before graduating high school in 1965.

Minor leagues

Ryan was selected by the New York Mets during the 1965 free-agent draft and played in the West Carolinas League beginning on September 11, 1966. During Ryan's time with this league, his teammates began to respect his fastball. Although Ryan lacked true ball control, he nonetheless frightened batters and catchers alike with his scorching fastball, which one day would be known as "The Ryan Express."

As a result the New York Mets called Ryan up to play in the major leagues at the end of the 1966 season. The Mets at that time were in sore need of great players, because until 1969, the Mets had finished last or next to last in every season since the team was founded in 1962. Unfortunately for the Mets, the 1967 season did not bring the great play expected. Ryan was often homesick and therefore missed much of the 1967 season due to illness, an arm injury, and service with the U.S. Army Reserves.

Marriage and the Mets

Ryan married his high school sweetheart, Ruth, in 1968. She moved to New York City to be closer to Ryan and help ease his homesickness. Along with the improved playing ability Ryan achieved during that season, the New York Mets also improved as a team. The Mets added two key people to their pitching staff, Jerry Koosman and Tom Seaver (1944–), a strikeout leader in his own right from whom Ryan learned a great deal.

During the 1969 season, Ryan played as both a starting and relief pitcher, finishing the season with a 6–3 record. This type of finish soon became the norm for Ryan as he concentrated more on striking out batters than on winning games. Regardless, it was primarily Ryan's pitching abilities that took the New York Mets to the league championships that year and later the World Series. Ryan saved the Mets' bid for the World Series title when in the third game of the series, he made the crucial plays needed to earn the win. The Mets went on to upset the Baltimore Orioles after five games.

Ryan, even with a world championship title to his credit, still felt uncomfortable in New York City, and requested to be traded in 1971. Without much discussion, the Mets agreed to Ryan's request and traded him along with three other players to the California Angels. Because of this move, he was able to distance himself from the East and a climate and location he was never fond of. Looking back, as players and managers often do, this trade is often considered the worst in the history of the Mets. Once in California, Ryan blasted his way into superstar status. He stayed with the Angels for eight seasons, from 1972 through 1979.

Team accomplishments

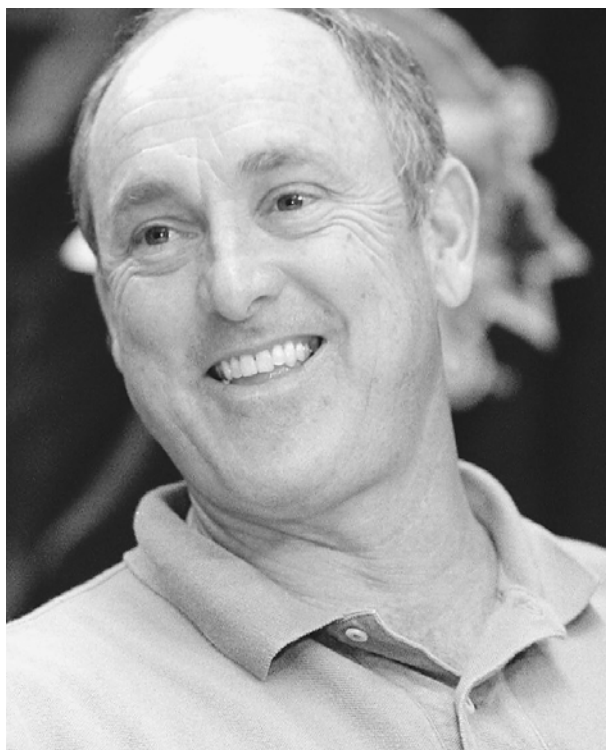
With the Angels Ryan struck out more than three hundred batters for the first time. Ryan finished the 1972 season with 19 wins, 16 losses, and 329 strikeouts. With the close of the 1973 season, Ryan became the first-ever pitcher to have back-to-back seasons of over 300 strikeouts. Striking out 383 hitters, Ryan set an all-time major league record. Additionally, in the 1973 season, Ryan became only the fifth pitcher in baseball history to pitch two no-hit games in one season.

The 1974 and 1975 seasons were also quite good for Ryan statistically. In the 1974 season, Ryan pitched his third no-hit game and completed a third season of over three hundred strikeouts. The 1975 season saw Ryan complete his fourth no-hit game. Ryan became the second pitcher in major league history to achieve this feat.

Move to Texas and desperation

Although Ryan played some of his best games with the California Angels, he still longed for his native Texas. His break came at the end of the 1979 season when he became a free agent. Ryan was immediately signed with the Houston Astros and became baseball's first pitcher to earn one million dollars a year. Although this amount is common by today's standards, when it was awarded to Ryan, such a sum was unheard of at the time.

Ryan pitched for the Astros from 1980 through the 1988 season. In 1981, he threw his fifth no-hitter. He led the league with the lowest earned run average in 1981 and 1987. In 1980, 1981, and 1986, the Astros were in the National League playoffs, but lost all three times.



Nolan Ryan.

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After Ryan completed his contract with the Astros, he again was a free agent at the end of the 1988 season. He was quickly picked up, this time by the Texas Rangers in time for the 1989 season. Although Ryan would not play in a playoff series with the Rangers, he did pitch his sixth and seventh no-hit games and led the American League in strikeouts in the 1989, 1990, and 1991 seasons.

Called it quits

On September 22, 1993, on Nolan Ryan Appreciation Day in Seattle, Washington, all that Ryan dreamed of and played for came to

an abrupt halt. Although he planned to retire at the end of the 1993 season, he expected to do so with the grace and dignity deserving of his accomplishments. After feeling his right elbow pop with pain from a torn ligament in the middle of the Rangers game against the Seattle Mariners, Ryan knew his chances at the World Series were over. Ryan was sidelined for the rest of the game, giving him ample time to reflect on his twenty-seven-year career.

That day, at forty-six, Ryan walked off the field giving baseball and its fans something that is rarely seen. As an athlete, Ryan defined his own class and style. He attained the five-thousand-strikeout mark at the age of forty-two, when most professional sports players had long since retired. In 1999 Ryan was inducted into the Baseball Hall of Fame for playing a record twenty-seven seasons and pitching seven no-hitters.

In April of 2000 Ryan underwent emergency double-bypass surgery at the Heart Hospital of Austin, Texas. After experiencing shortness of breath and chest pains, his wife drove him to the Round Rock Medical Center, where doctors performed tests. He was

then taken to the Heart Hospital of Austin, where an angiogram (an X ray of blood vessels) showed a substantial blockage of the left main coronary artery.

Nolan Ryan is currently a cattle rancher and a businessman. He and his wife are also active promoters of healthy and fit lifestyles for Americans.

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ALBERT SABIN

Born: August 26, 1906

Bialystok, Poland

Died: March 3, 1993

Washington, D.C.

Polish-born American physician and virologist

Polish-born physician and virologist (scientist who studies viruses) Albert Sabin developed the first effective and widely used live virus polio myelitis (polio) vaccine.

Early years and education

Born on August 26, 1906, in Bialystok, Poland, Albert Bruce Sabin came to the

United States with his parents and three siblings in 1921 in order to avoid persecution (harsh treatment) directed against Jews. They established residence in Paterson, New Jersey. Sabin's father worked in the textile industry in both silk and regular cloth. Sabin worked hard to learn his new language, working odd jobs throughout his high school and college years.

At Paterson High School Sabin participated in after-school activities including the literary and debating clubs. He graduated in 1923. Sabin entered New York University as a premedical student, then switched to medical school microbiology (the study of life forms that cannot be seen without the aid of a microscope).



Albert Sabin.

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Begins polio research

Upon receiving his medical degree in 1931, Sabin immediately began research on the nature and cause of polio, a viral infection that can result in death or paralysis. This disease had reached epidemic (affecting a huge number of people) proportions, affecting people around the world.

Sabin joined the staff of the Rockefeller Institute in New York City in 1935 and four years later left for a post at the Children's Hospital Research Foundation in Cincinnati, Ohio. It was there that he proved that polio viruses not only grew in nerve tissue, as was generally assumed, but that they lived in the

small intestines. This discovery indicated that polio might be vulnerable to a vaccine taken orally (through the mouth).

Sabin's work on a polio vaccine was interrupted by World War II (1939–45; a war fought mostly in Europe with France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States on one side, and Germany, Japan, and Italy on the other). In 1941 he joined the U.S. Army Epidemiological Board's Virus Committee and accepted assignments in Europe, Africa, the Middle East, and the Pacific. During this phase of his career Sabin developed vaccines for encephalitis (swelling of the brain), sand-fly fever, and dengue fever (a virus transmitted by mosquitoes).

Develops polio vaccine

At the war's end Sabin returned to Cincinnati and to his research on the polio virus. His approach was to make the human stomach a hostile environment for the polio virus. He intended to accomplish this by isolating a mutant (altered, different) form of the polio virus that was incapable of producing the disease. The avirulent (not able to harm the body's defenses) virus would then be grown and introduced into the intestines. There it would reproduce rapidly, displacing the deadly virulent forms of the polio virus and protecting the human host from the disease.

After an intensive investigation Sabin managed to isolate the viruses he sought. Sabin and his research associates first swallowed the live avirulent viruses themselves before they experimented on other human subjects. For two years (1955–1957) the vaccine was tested on hundreds of prison inmates with no harmful effects.

At this point Sabin was ready for large-scale tests, but he could not carry them out in the United States. A rival polio vaccine developed by Dr. Jonas Salk (1914–1995) in 1954 was then being tested for its ability to prevent the disease among American school children. Salk's approach was to create a vaccine using a killed form of the virus.

Some foreign virologists, especially those from the Soviet Union, were convinced of the superiority of the Sabin vaccine. It was first tested widely in Russia, Latvia, Estonia, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Hungary, and East Germany from 1957 to 1959. A much smaller group of persons living in Sweden, England, Singapore, and the United States received Sabin's vaccine by the end of 1959.

In the meantime Salk's vaccine had been accidentally contaminated with some live virulent polio viruses. It caused death or severe illness to several hundred school children. In addition, the Salk vaccine had to be injected into the body and it was effective for a relatively short time—less than a year. These problems made the American medical community more receptive to Sabin's vaccine.

Sabin's vaccine was free of dangerous viruses, easily administered orally, and effective over a long period of time. Ultimately it was a live virus vaccine that was used in the United States and the rest of the world to eliminate polio.

Later life

Always a tireless researcher, Sabin moved on to a new field of study, the possible role viruses play in creating cancer in humans. After more than a decade of work he was forced in 1977 to conclude that cancers

were not caused by viruses as he had first assumed. Sabin served as research professor at the University of South Carolina until 1982. In 1980 he traveled to Brazil to deal with a new outbreak of polio, and retired from medicine in 1986. Sabin died March 3, 1993, of heart failure.

Sabin's work on a vaccine for the polio virus affected millions of people. By 1993 health organizations reported the near-extinction of the polio disease in the Western Hemisphere.

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CARL SAGAN

Born: November 9, 1934

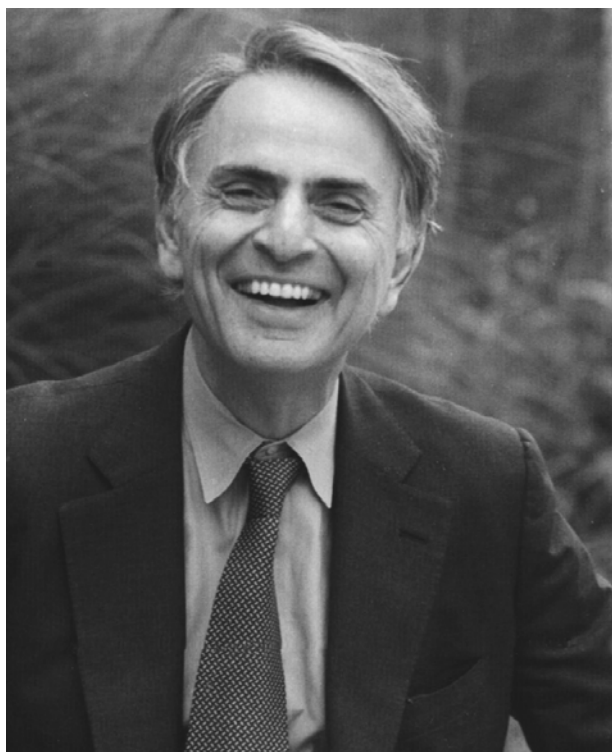
New York, New York

Died: December 20, 1996

Seattle, Washington

American astronomer, author, and lecturer

The American astronomer Carl Sagan studied the surfaces and atmospheres of the major planets, conducted experiments on the origins of life on Earth, made important contributions to the debate over the environmental consequences



Carl Sagan.

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of nuclear war, and wrote a number of popular books explaining developments in astronomy, biology, and psychology.

Younger years and education

Carl Edward Sagan was born on November 9, 1934, in New York City to Samuel and Molly Sagan. His father was a factory manager. As a child Carl was fascinated with the stars. By age nine he was an amateur astronomer and felt certain there was life on other planets. At age twelve he announced to his grandfather his intention to become an astronomer. However, it was not until he was a sophomore in high school

that he realized that astronomers actually got paid for their work.

The family later moved to Rahway, New Jersey, where Carl graduated from high school in 1951. He was voted "most likely to succeed" and "most outstanding male student." With the help of several scholarships, he studied astronomy at the University of Chicago. He was captain of a championship intramural basketball team and president of the Astronomical Society, which he had founded. He received a bachelor of arts degree with special honors in the natural sciences in 1954, a bachelor of science degree in physics in 1955, and his doctorate in 1960.

Early teaching and research

Over the next ten years Sagan held teaching and/or research posts at the University of California at Berkeley, Harvard University, the Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory, and Stanford University. In 1970 he became director of Cornell University's Laboratory for Planetary Studies and David Duncan Professor of Astronomy and Space Science. In addition to his academic appointments Sagan served as a consultant to the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and was closely associated with the unmanned (without astronauts onboard) space missions to Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn.

The surface and atmosphere of Venus

Sagan's first major research effort was an investigation of the surface and atmosphere of Venus. In the late 1950s the general scientific view was that the surface of Venus was relatively cool and that life of some sort might exist on the planet. Radio emissions had been

observed and it was thought that they came from the activity of charged particles located in an atmospheric layer.

Sagan overturned these ideas in 1961 by showing that the emissions could be caused by a very hot surface temperature, over 300 degrees Centigrade (572 degrees Fahrenheit), in which life could not exist. He said the high temperatures were caused by a “greenhouse effect,” in which the sun’s heat was trapped between the planet’s surface and its carbon dioxide cloud cover. These ideas were confirmed by an exploratory space vehicle sent to Venus by the Soviet Union in 1967.

Solar system research

The physical characteristics of the surface of Mars have long interested astronomers and science fiction writers. Telescopic observation of the planet revealed distinctive bright and dark areas on its surface. This led some to guess that large regions of Mars were covered with plants that change with the seasons.

In the mid-twentieth century, radar and other new means of observation were used to gather information on the topography (surface features), temperature, wind speeds, and atmosphere of Mars. Reviewing this newly collected data, Sagan concluded that the bright regions were lowlands filled with sand and dust blown by the wind and that the dark areas were elevated ridges or highlands.

The origins of life

Sagan also investigated the origins of life on Earth and championed the study of exobiology (the biology of extraterrestrial life). In the mid-1950s Harold Urey and Stanley Miller had successfully produced key organic

compounds in the laboratory by recreating the physical and chemical conditions that were common on Earth shortly before the first forms of life appeared. Building upon this research, Sagan exposed a mixture of methane, ammonia, water, and hydrogen sulfide to radiation. This had the effect of producing amino acids and adenosine triphosphate (ATP), complex chemical compounds that are crucial to living cells.

Popular writing

It is not his scientific achievements but his popular books and his television appearances that made Sagan a well-known public figure. In 1973 he published *The Cosmic Connection*, a lively introduction to space exploration and the search for extraterrestrial life. Four years later he published his Pulitzer Prize-winning book on the evolution of the human brain, *The Dragons of Eden*.

Another of Sagan’s books, *Cosmos* (1980), deserves notice because it was written in conjunction with his well-received television series of the same name. In this work Sagan offered a brief history of the physical universe, showed how the universe came to be understood with the help of modern science, and warned that the Earth was in danger of being destroyed by a nuclear disaster.

Nuclear winter

In December of 1983 Sagan, with colleagues R. P. Turco, O. B. Toon, T. P. Ackerman, and J. B. Pollack, published “Nuclear Winter: Global Consequences of Multiple Nuclear Explosions.” The article stated that in a nuclear war tremendous quantities of soot and dust would be injected into the atmosphere to form a gigantic black cloud

covering most of the Northern Hemisphere. This cloud would reduce the incoming sunlight by more than 95 percent for a period of several weeks and affect the climate on Earth for a number of years thereafter. During the cold, dark nuclear winter the vegetation which animals and humans need for sustenance (nourishment) would be seriously depleted and great harm would be done to the environment and to human society.

Sagan continued to work and speak about science until his death in Seattle, Washington, on December 20, 1996, of pneumonia brought on by a rare bone marrow disease.

Sagan once said that his own sense of wonder, combined with the encouragement his parents showed for pursuing unusual interests, were the factors that led him to his choice of work. He was best known for popularizing science, presenting it in generally understandable or interesting form. It is a fitting tribute that the Mars Pathfinder lander was renamed the Dr. Carl Sagan Memorial Station when it touched down on the surface of Mars in July of 1997.

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ANDREI SAKHAROV

Born: May 21, 1921

Moscow, Russia

Died: December 14, 1989

Moscow, Russia

Russian physicist and reformer

Andrei Sakharov was one of the Soviet Union's leading physicists and is regarded in scientific circles as the "father of the Soviet atomic bomb." He also became Soviet Russia's most prominent political dissident (a person who holds political views that differ from the majority) in the 1970s.

Early years and education

Andrei Sakharov was born in Moscow, Russia, on May 21, 1921, the oldest of two sons. He was also part of a large family. When he was growing up, four Sakharov families shared the same apartment building. His father taught physics, the branch of science that examines matter and energy, and how they work together. He would take young Andrei to his laboratory and show him experiments. Andrei was dazzled and began performing his own experiments at home. His father encouraged him and gave him the desire to find fulfillment in his work.

Sakharov studied physics at Moscow University. During World War II (1939–45; a war fought mostly in Europe between the Axis—Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies—led by the Soviet Union, Great Britain, France, and the United States) he served as an engineer in a military factory. He met Klavdia Vikhireva, a

laboratory assistant, and they married in 1943. The couple had three children.

Physics research

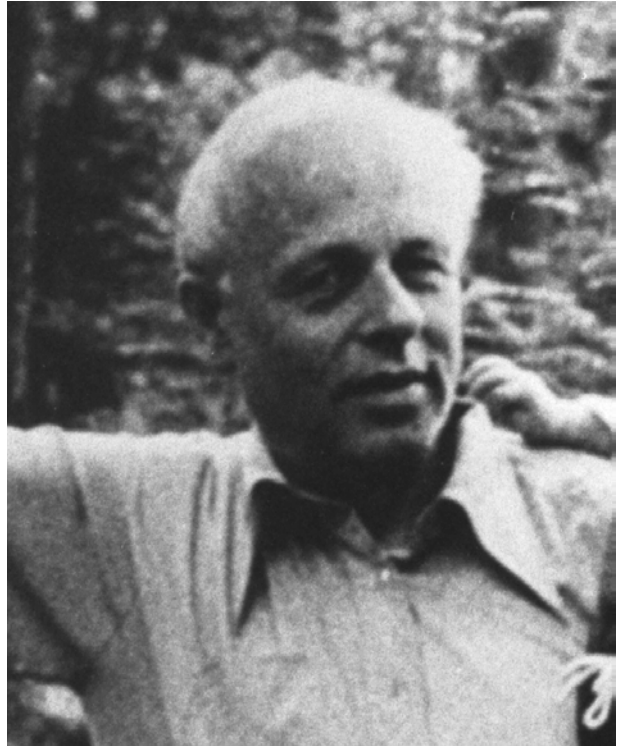
In 1945 Sakharov entered the Lebedev Institute in Physics where he joined the Soviet research group working on atomic weapons. He wrote many scientific articles and his achievements were recognized throughout the world. In 1953, at the age of thirty-two, he became the youngest person ever elected to the Soviet Academy of Sciences.

Between 1950 and 1968 Sakharov conducted top secret research on thermonuclear weapons. Thermonuclear weapons release destructive energy by fusing the nuclei (the dense central cores) of atoms under high temperatures. He was named “Hero of Socialist Labor” in 1953, 1956, and 1962. He also developed a strong awareness of the dangers of nuclear testing activity and the irreversible consequences of nuclear war.

Takes stand against Soviet government policies

In the late 1950s Sakharov sent many letters to Soviet leaders urging them to stop nuclear testing. He also published several articles in Soviet journals arguing against continued nuclear testing and the arms race. His views apparently carried weight with Premier Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971) and others, and influenced the Soviet decision to sign the first nuclear test ban treaty in 1963.

In 1966 and 1967 Sakharov openly pressed for civil liberties (rights of the people of a country). He became more militant (devoted to his cause) following the Soviet invasion of Czechoslovakia in 1968. Some-



Andrei Sakharov.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

times he and other dissidents stood vigil (watch) at trials of those arrested for protest activities. While standing vigil at a trial in 1970 Sakharov, who was then a widower, met Elena Bonner. They later married, and she became his strongest supporter.

Reflections and banishment

At this time Sakharov published his best-known and most persuasive and forceful political essay, *Reflections on Progress, Peaceful Coexistence and Intellectual Freedom*. In it he urged cooperation between East and West (primarily the Soviet Union and the United States), civil liberties, and an end to the arms

race. Following the publication of *Reflections* in the West, Sakharov was removed from most of his scientific projects and dismissed from the Soviet Atomic Energy Commission. It soon became difficult for him to publish scientific works. For a time, Sakharov was protected from being arrested because of his international prestige as a nuclear physicist, and his specific knowledge of the Soviet Union's nuclear weapons program.

Toward the end of the 1970s Sakharov became increasingly alarmed about the Soviet arms build-up, which he saw as a reflection of aggressive plans. He frequently expressed his thoughts to foreign reporters and many of his views were printed in the West. His outspoken criticism of the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in late 1979 led to the banishment (forced exit) of Sakharov and his wife to Gorky, a small city two hundred fifty miles east of Moscow. He was cut off from open contact with friends and colleagues and constantly harassed by the KGB (Soviet secret police).

In 1983 Sakharov reportedly considered leaving Soviet Russia but was refused because of his knowledge of Soviet state secrets. On several occasions he engaged in hunger strikes (where someone refuses to eat as an act of protest) to call attention to continued threats against him and his family.

In 1983 U.S. president Ronald Reagan (1911–) proclaimed May 21 National Sakharov Day in recognition of his courage and his contribution to humanity. Sakharov was detained in Gorky for almost seven years, released at last by Premier Mikhail Gorbachev (1931–) in 1986. In 1989 he was elected to the newly formed Soviet legislature. The remaining three years of Sakharov's life were spent traveling abroad. He died of a heart attack on December 14, 1989, in Moscow.

Sakharov received the Nobel Peace Prize in 1975 for his work for nuclear disarmament and his outspoken criticism of human rights violations everywhere. He was for many, inside the Soviet Union and out, a noble symbol of courage, intelligence, and humanity. Part of his obituary said, "Everything [he] did was dictated by his conscience."

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J. D.
SALINGER

Born: January 1, 1919

New York, New York

American writer

J. D. Salinger, best known for his controversial novel *The Catcher in the Rye* (1951), is recognized by critics and readers alike as one of the most popular and influential authors of American fiction during the second half of the twentieth century.

Growing up in the "House of Glass"

Jerome David Salinger was born in New York City on January 1, 1919, and like the

members of the fictional Glass family that appear in some of his works, was the product of mixed parentage—his father was Jewish and his mother was Scotch-Irish. Salinger's upbringing was not unlike that of Holden Caulfield of *The Catcher in the Rye*, the Glass children, and many of his other characters. Unlike the Glass family with its brood of seven children, Salinger had only an elder sister. He grew up in fashionable areas of Manhattan and for a time attended public schools. Later, the young Salinger attended prep schools where he apparently found it difficult to adjust. In 1934 his father enrolled him at Valley Forge Military Academy near Wayne, Pennsylvania, where he stayed for approximately two years, graduating in June of 1936.

Salinger maintained average grades and was an active, if at times distant, participant in a number of extracurricular activities. He began to write fiction, often by flashlight under his blankets after the hour when lights had to be turned out. Salinger contributed work to the school's literary magazine, served as literary editor of the yearbook during his senior year, participated in the chorus, and was active in drama club productions. He is also credited with composing the words to the school's anthem.

Published author

In 1938 Salinger enrolled in Ursinus College at Collegeville, Pennsylvania. While at Ursinus he resumed his literary pursuits, contributing a humorous column to the school's weekly newspaper. He left the school after only one semester. Obviously an intelligent and sensitive man, Salinger apparently did not respond well to the structure and rig-



J. D. Salinger.

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ors of a college education. This attitude found its way into much of his writing, as there is a pattern throughout his work of impatience with formal learning and academic types.

Despite Salinger's dislike of formal education, he attended Columbia University in 1939 and participated in a class on short story writing taught by Whit Burnett (1899–1973). Burnett, a writer and important editor, made a lasting impression on the young author, and it was in the magazine *Story*, founded and edited by Burnett, that Salinger published his first story, "The Young Folks," in the spring of 1940. Encouraged by

the success of this effort, Salinger continued to write and after a year of rejection slips finally broke into the rank of well-paying magazines catering to popular reading tastes.

Salinger entered military service in 1942 and served until the end of World War II (1939–45; a war in which Allied forces led by Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States fought with the Axis forces of Germany, Italy, and Japan). Salinger participated in the Normandy campaign, when Allied forces landed on French shores and turned the tide of the war, and the liberation of France from the occupying German army. He continued to write and publish while in the army, carrying a portable typewriter with him in the back of his jeep. After returning to the United States, Salinger's career as a writer of serious fiction took off. In 1946 the *New Yorker* published his story "Slight Rebellion Off Madison," which was later rewritten to become a part of *The Catcher in the Rye*.

The Catcher in the Rye

In 1951 Salinger's masterpiece *The Catcher in the Rye* landed at bookstores. In *The Catcher in the Rye*, Holden Caulfield is driven to the brink of a nervous breakdown by his disgust for the "phoniness" of the adult world that he is about to enter. He finds peace only in the presence of Phoebe, his young sister. Taking flight from this world, Holden plans to head west, where he hopes to live a peaceful existence in a log cabin. However, he begins his journey by traveling to New York where he plans to say goodbye to his sister, and on the way he participates in a series of humorous adventures. Such a confusion in direction is characteristic of Caulfield, as there seems to be a pattern of

impulsive behavior in many of his actions. One of Salinger's more subtle devices is to discredit his main character by placing him in situations wherein his own phoniness is exposed. In these situations his character is made all the more interesting through what readers quickly see as his sensitivity and intelligence.

It is little wonder that *The Catcher in the Rye* quickly became a favorite among young people; it skillfully demonstrates the adolescent experience with its spirit of rebellion. At various points in history, *The Catcher in the Rye* has been banned by public libraries, schools, and bookstores due to its presumed profanity (bad language), sexual subject matter, and rejection of traditional American values.

Success

Despite its popular success, the critical response to *The Catcher in the Rye* was slow in getting underway. It was not until *Nine Stories*, a collection of previously published short stories came out in 1953 that Salinger began to attract serious critical attention.

Salinger did not publish another book until 1961, when his much anticipated *Franny and Zooey* appeared. This work consists of two long short stories, previously published in the *New Yorker*. Each concerns a crisis in the life of the youngest member of his fictional Glass family—the quirky characters who populate most of his work. In 1963 Salinger published another Glass family story sequence, *Raise High the Roof Beam, Carpenters*; and *Seymour: An Introduction*, again from two previously published *New Yorker* pieces. Both stories revolve around the life and tragic death of Seymour Glass, the eldest of the Glass children, as narrated by his brother

Buddy Glass, who is frequently identified as Salinger's alter-ego, or a representation of the author's personality.

The myth of J. D. Salinger

While Salinger's fictional characters have been endlessly analyzed and discussed, the author himself has remained a mystery. Since the publication of *The Catcher in the Rye*, he has consistently avoided contact with the public, obstructing attempts by those wishing to pry into his personal life. In 1987 he successfully blocked the publication of an unauthorized biography by Ian Hamilton. In his lawsuit, Salinger claimed copyright infringement on private matters Hamilton had discovered in the course of research. Even after revising his material, Hamilton was unable to satisfy Salinger or the court and was forced to withdraw the book. In 1988 an extensively revised version of Hamilton's work was published under the title *In Search of J. D. Salinger*, which represents a comprehensive study of the author and his work.

Deemed the "Summer of Salinger" by columnist Liz Smith, the summer of 1999 saw the release of the latest Salinger biography and the sale of love letters the author wrote to a former girlfriend, which sold for \$156,000. The letters were bought by software millionaire Peter Norton, who returned the letters to the author. Paul Alexander's *Salinger: A Biography*, published on July 15, 1999, is the first full-length Salinger biography since Ian Hamilton's in 1988. Salinger has not made an effort to limit the release of the book, unlike the Hamilton biography.

In 1997 a rumor surfaced that a Salinger story originally printed in the *New Yorker* in

1965, "Hapworth 16, 1924," was soon to be released in book form. The publication is still planned but no date has been set.

Today Salinger lives in seclusion in rural New Hampshire, writing for his own pleasure and presumably enjoying his private world.

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JONAS SALK

Born: October 28, 1914

New York, New York

Died: June 23, 1995

La Jolla, California

American immunologist and virologist

The American physician, virologist (scientist who studies viruses), and immunologist (medical scientist concerned with the structure and function of the immune system, the body's resistance to infection) Jonas Salk developed the first effective poliomyelitis (polio) vaccine.



Jonas Salk.

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Early years and education

Jonas Edward Salk was born in New York City on October 28, 1914, the oldest of three sons of Daniel and Dora Salk. The family moved to the Bronx, New York, shortly after Jonas's birth. As a child he was thin and small and did not do well at sports, although he was an excellent student. With his mother's encouragement, he had a sense as a child that when he grew up he would "make a difference" by doing something significant.

Salk graduated from Townsend Harris High School, a school for exceptional students. He studied hard, read everything he could lay his hands on, and always got good

grades. At the age of sixteen Salk entered the College of the City of New York to study law. He subsequently changed his mind and decided instead to pursue medicine. In 1934 he enrolled in the College of Medicine of New York University, from which he graduated in 1939. Salk worked at New York's Mount Sinai Hospital from 1940 to 1942, when he went to the University of Michigan. There he helped develop an influenza (flu) vaccine. In 1944 he was appointed research associate in epidemiology (the study of the causes, distribution, and control of disease), and in 1946 he was made assistant professor.

Polio vaccine

In 1947 Salk accepted a position at the University of Pittsburgh as associate professor of bacteriology (the study of bacteria, one-celled organisms that can cause disease). There he carried out his research on a polio vaccine. Polio vaccines had been attempted before but without success. Until 1949 it was not known that there were three distinct types of polio viruses.

This discovery provided a starting point for Salk. Working under a grant from the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, he prepared a killed-virus vaccine effective against all three types. Testing began in 1950, and the preliminary report on the vaccine's effectiveness was published in the *Journal of the American Medical Association* in 1953. National field trials were held in 1954, and in 1955 the vaccine was determined safe for general use.

The Salk vaccine is made by cultivating (growing) three strains of the virus separately, then killing it by applying a strong chemical called formaldehyde. Tests are then per-

formed to make certain the virus is dead. A series of three or four injections is required to make someone immune.

Problems with the Salk vaccine

Acceptance of the vaccine was not without problems. Salk was criticized because a glaring Hollywood-like promotion was undertaken for the vaccine. Also, some medical colleagues favored a live-virus vaccine. The live-virus vaccine developed by Dr. Albert Sabin (1906–1993) contained a mutant (altered, different) form of the polio virus, called an avirulent virus. This means it was not able to harm the body's defenses. The live-virus vaccine had advantages over the killed-virus vaccine. It could be administered orally (through the mouth) rather than by injection, and one dosage gave permanent immunity.

The biggest problem with the Salk vaccine was that improper production of the vaccine by some drug companies resulted in the vaccine being contaminated with live polio virus. Many hundreds of children died or became extremely ill because of this.

Salk, during his polio researches, was made research professor of bacteriology at Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, (1949–1954) and professor of preventive medicine (1954–1957). In 1957 he was named Commonwealth professor of experimental medicine.

In 1963 he opened the Salk Institute for Biological Studies in San Diego, California. There he and his colleagues studied problems relating to the body's autoimmunization reaction; that is, why the body rejects foreign material, for example, an organ transplant.

Jonas Salk died on June 23, 1995, in La

Jolla, California, at the age of eighty from heart failure. In his lifetime he was able to see the effects of his life's work. By the time Salk died, polio had virtually disappeared from the United States.

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GEORGE SAND

Born: July 1, 1804

Paris, France

Died: June 9, 1876

Nohant, France

French author

The French novelist George Sand was one of the most successful female writers of the nineteenth century.



George Sand.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Early life

George Sand was born Armandine Aurore Lucille Dupin in Paris, France, on July 1, 1804. Her father, Maurice Dupin, was related to a line of kings and to the Maréchal de Saxe (Marshal of Saxe); her mother, Sophie, was the daughter of a professional bird fancier who came from a humble background. Maurice Dupin was a soldier and died when Aurore was four years old. After her father's death, Aurore, her mother, and her grandmother moved from Paris to Nohant, France. At the age of fourteen, Aurore was sent to the convent (a community for nuns) of the Dames Augustines Anglaises

in Paris. Though she was often rebellious against the convent's peaceful life, she also felt drawn to quiet, deep thought and direct communication with God.

To save Aurore from mysticism (the belief that communication with God can be achieved through spiritual insight), her grandmother called her to her home. Here Aurore studied nature, practiced medicine on the peasants (poor, working class), read from the philosophers of all ages, and developed a passion for the works of French writer François René Chateaubriand (1768–1848). Her colorful tutor encouraged her to wear men's clothing while horseback riding, and she galloped through the countryside in trousers and a loose shirt, free, wild, and in love with nature.

Marriage and lovers

Aurore became mistress of the estate at Nohant when her grandmother died. At nineteen she married Casimir Dudevant, the son of a baron and a servant girl. He was goodhearted but coarse and sensual, and he offended her far-fetched ideal of love. At the age of twenty-seven Aurore moved to Paris in search of independence and love, leaving her husband and children behind. She began writing articles to earn her living and met many writers. Henri de Latouche and historian Charles Sainte-Beuve (1804–1869) became her mentors.

Aurore fell in love with Jules Sandeau, a charming young writer. They collaborated on articles and signed them collectively "J. Sand." When she published her first novel, *Indiana* (1832), she took as her pen name "George Sand." Eventually her affair with Sandeau dissolved. Then she met the young poet Alfred de Musset (1810–1857), and they became lovers.

George Sand legally separated from her husband; she gained custody over their daughter, Solange, while her husband kept the other child, Maurice. She had come to enjoy a great reputation in Paris both as a writer and as a bold and brilliant woman. She had many admirers and chose new lovers from among them. Her lovers included the Polish composer Frédéric Chopin (1810–1849).

Her novels

Every night from midnight until dawn, George Sand covered her daily quota of twenty pages with her large, tranquil writing, never crossing out a line. All her novels are love stories in which her romantic idealism unfolds in a realistic setting.

The early works by George Sand are novels of passion, written to lessen the pain of her first love affairs. *Indiana* (1832) has as its central theme woman's search for the absolute in love. *Valentine* (1832) depicts an upper-class woman, unhappily married, who finds that a farmer's son loves her. *Lélia* (1854) is a lyrical but searching confession of the author's own physical coldness. *Lélia* is a beautiful woman loved by a young poet, but she can show him only motherly affection.

Le Compagnon du tour de France (1840), *Consuelo* (1842–1843), and *Le Pêché de Monsieur Antoine* (1847) are typical novels of this period for the author. She sympathized in these novels with the difficult lives of the worker and the farmer. She also wrote a number of novels devoted to country life, most produced during her retreat to Nohant. *La Mare au diable* (1846), *La Petite Fadette* (1849), and *Les Maîtres sonneurs* (1852) are typical novels of this genre.

As George Sand grew older, she spent more and more time at her beloved Nohant

and gave herself up to the gentle, peaceful life she created for herself there, the entertainment of friends, the staging of puppet shows, and most of all to her grandchildren. Though she had lost none of her vital energy and enthusiasm, she grew less concerned with politics. Her quest for the absolute in love had led her through years of stormy affairs to reaching a tolerant and universal love—of God, of nature, and of children. She died in Nohant on June 9, 1876.

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CARL SANDBURG

Born: January 6, 1878

Galesburg, Illinois

Died: July 22, 1967

Flat Rock, North Carolina

American poet, biographer, and singer

An American poet, singer of folk songs and ballads, and biographer, Carl Sandburg is best known for his biography of Abraham Lincoln (1809–1865)



Carl Sandburg.

and his early verse celebrations of Chicago, Illinois.

Son of Swedish immigrants

Carl August Sandburg was born in Galesburg, Illinois, on January 6, 1878, the second of August Sandburg and Clara Mathilda Anderson's seven children. His parents had both come to the United States from Sweden; his father worked as a blacksmith's assistant. Sandburg liked to read and decided at age six that he wanted to be a writer, but he left school after finishing eighth grade to work at a series of jobs. Sandburg was brought up in a largely Republican household, but events

such as the local railway workers' strikes and the Chicago Haymarket riots of 1886 got him interested in social justice.

Sandburg traveled extensively through the West, where he began developing a love of the country and its people. Following eight months of service in the army, Sandburg entered Lombard (now Knox) College in Galesburg. There he wrote his first poetry and was encouraged by Professor Philip Green Wright, who privately published several volumes of his poems and essays.

Early writings

Sandburg left Lombard without graduating and eventually moved to Milwaukee, Wisconsin, where in 1907 and 1908 he was district organizer for the Social Democratic Party in the state. In 1907 he met Lilian Steichen, a schoolteacher, and they were married in 1908. From 1910 to 1912 Sandburg served as secretary to Milwaukee's Socialist (believing in collective ownership of the means of producing goods and services) mayor Emil Seidel. Later he moved to Chicago, becoming an editorial writer for the *Daily News* in 1917. Meanwhile his verse began appearing in *Poetry* magazine; *Chicago Poems* was published in 1916. He made his reputation as a poet of the American scene with *Cornhuskers* (1918), *Smoke and Steel* (1920), and *Slabs of the Sunburnt West* (1922).

Sandburg's early writings dealt with his belief in social justice and equality and were written in such a way that they barely resembled what most people thought of as poetry. "I Am the People, the Mob" from the *Chicago Poems* is an example. The ending of the poem is similar to the style of Walt Whitman (1819–1892): "When I, the People, learn to

remember, when I, the People, use the lessons of yesterday and no longer forget who robbed me last year, who played me for a fool—then there will be no speaker in all the world say the name: ‘The People,’ with any fleck of a sneer in his voice or any far-off smile of derision [ridicule]. The mob—the crowd—the mass—will arrive then.”

Sandburg’s early poetry not only tended toward unshaped imitation of real life but also copied other poets as well. Sandburg’s “Happiness” is somewhat similar to Ezra Pound’s (1885–1972) “Salutation,” and Sandburg’s “Fog” was compared to T. S. Eliot’s (1888–1965) “The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock,” which had appeared the year before “Fog” was published. Seventy-three previously uncollected Sandburg poems from the 1910s can be found in *Poems for the People* (1999).

Later work

From 1926 to 1939 Sandburg devoted himself mainly to writing the six-volume biography of President Abraham Lincoln, presenting Lincoln as a symbol of the American spirit; Sandburg received a Pulitzer Prize in history for this work (1939). He also collected the folk songs that made up *The American Songbook* (1927).

Honey and Salt (1963), a remarkable achievement for a “part-time” poet in his eighties, contains much of Sandburg’s best poetry. Here the mellowness and wisdom of age are evident, and the poems are more effective than his earlier verse. By this time Sandburg had developed and begun to express a deeply felt sympathy and concern for actual people. Tenderness replaces sentimentality; controlled feelings replace defensive “toughness.” There is

also a religious element in these last poems that does not appear in Sandburg’s earlier work.

Sandburg also collected folk songs and toured the country singing his favorites. He published a collection of these songs, called *The American Songbag*. Other Sandburg works include a collection of children’s stories, *Rootabaga Stories* (1922); *Good Morning, America* (1928); *The People, Yes* (1936); *Collected Poems* (1950), which won a Pulitzer Prize; and *Harvest Poems, 1910–1960* (1960). *Remembrance Rock* (1948), a sweeping view of American history, was his only novel. Sandburg died in Flat Rock, North Carolina, on July 22, 1967.

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MARGARET SANGER

Born: September 14, 1884

Corning, New York

Died: September 6, 1966

Tucson, Arizona

American author, nurse, and activist

The pioneering work of Margaret Sanger, an American crusader for scientific contraception (birth control), family planning, and population control, made her a world-renowned figure.

Influenced in childhood

Margaret Higgins Sanger was born Margaret Higgins on September 14, 1884, in Corning, New York. Her father was a fun-loving freethinker. Her mother was a devoted Roman Catholic who had eleven children before dying of tuberculosis, a deadly disease that attacks the lungs and bones. Margaret was greatly influenced by her father's political views in support of women's suffrage (the right to vote) and tax reform (improvements), although these and other beliefs caused the family to be seen as radical (extreme) in the eyes of their neighbors.

After graduating from the local high school and from Claverack College at Hudson, New York, Margaret took a teaching position in New Jersey, until she was forced to return home to care for her dying mother. Her mother's death in 1896 left her with a deep sense of dissatisfaction concerning her own and society's medical ignorance. Soon afterwards Margaret moved to White Plains, New York, where she took nurse's training. She then moved to New York City and served in the extremely poor conditions in the slums of its Lower East Side. In 1902 she married William Sanger. Although Margaret herself was plagued by tuberculosis, she had her first child, a son, the next year. The couple had another son, as well as a daughter who died in childhood.

Begins work in birth control

Margaret Sanger's experiences with slum mothers who begged for information about how to avoid more pregnancies transformed her into a social radical. She joined the Socialist Party, a political party that believes the government should own and distribute all goods, began attending radical rallies, and read everything she could about birth control practices. She became convinced that oversized families were the basic cause of poverty. In 1913 she began publishing a monthly newspaper, the *Woman Rebel*, in which she passionately urged family limitation and first used the term "birth control." After only six issues, she was arrested and charged with distributing "obscene" literature through the mails. She fled to Europe, where she continued her birth control studies, visiting clinics and talking with medical researchers.

Sanger returned to the United States in 1916 and, after charges against her were dropped, she began nationwide lecturing. In New York City she and her partners opened a birth control clinic in a slum area to give out materials and information about birth control. This time she was arrested under state law. She spent a month in prison, as did her sister. Leaving prison in 1917, Sanger intensified her activities, lecturing and raising money from a group of wealthy patrons (supporters) in New York, and launching the *Birth Control Review*, which became the voice of her movement for twenty-three years. Encouraged by a state court decision that loosened New York's anticontraceptive law, she shifted her movement's emphasis from direct action and open resistance to efforts to secure more flexible state and federal laws. Although regularly in trouble with New York

City authorities, she continued lecturing to large crowds and keeping in touch with European contraceptive research. Her visit to Japan in 1922 was the first of several Asian trips. A year later she and her friends opened clinical research bureaus to gather medical histories and dispense birth control information in New York City and Chicago, Illinois. By 1930 there were fifty-five clinics across the United States. Meanwhile Sanger divorced her husband and married J. Noah H. Slee.

Later work

Margaret Sanger's fame became worldwide in 1927, when she helped organize and spoke before the first World Population Conference at Geneva, Switzerland. She and her followers continued to lobby for freer state and federal laws on contraception and for the distribution of birth control knowledge through welfare programs. By 1940 the American birth control movement was operating a thriving clinic program and enjoying general acceptance by the medical profession and an increasingly favorable public attitude.

For most Americans, Margaret Sanger was the birth control movement. During World War II (1939–45), when European forces and the United States clashed with Germany, Italy, and Japan, her popularity continued to grow, despite her opposition to American participation in the war. (Sanger strongly believed that wars were the result of excess national population growth.) In 1946 she helped found the International Planned Parenthood Federation. This was one of her last great moments. She was troubled by a weak heart during her last twenty years, but she



Margaret Sanger.

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continued traveling, lecturing, and issuing frequent statements. She died in Tucson, Arizona, on September 6, 1966.

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JEAN-PAUL SARTRE

Born: June 21, 1905

Paris, France

Died: April 15, 1980

Paris, France

French philosopher and writer

The French philosopher and distinguished writer Jean-Paul Sartre ranks as the most versatile writer and as the dominant influence in three decades of French intellectual life.

Childhood and early work

Jean-Paul Sartre was born in Paris, France, on June 21, 1905. His father, a naval officer, died while on a tour of duty in Indochina before Sartre was two years old. His mother belonged to the Alsatian Schweitzer family and was a first cousin to the famous physician Albert Schweitzer (1875–1925). The young widow returned to her parents' house, where she and her son were treated as "the children." In the first volume of his autobiography, *The Words* (1964), Sartre describes his "unnatural" childhood as a spoiled and an unusually intelligent boy. Lacking any companions his own age, the child found "friends" exclu-

sively in books. He began reading when he was a very young boy. Reading and writing thus became his twin passions. "It was in books that I encountered the universe," he once said.

Sartre received much of his early education from tutors. He entered the école Normale Supérieure at the University of Paris in 1924 and graduated in 1929. While there, he met the novelist Simone de Beauvoir (1908–1986), and the two formed a close relationship that lasted thereafter. After completing required military service, Sartre took a teaching job at a lycée (public secondary school) in Le Havre, France. There he wrote his first novel, *Nausea* (1938), which some critics have called the century's most influential French novel.

World War II

From 1933 to 1935 Sartre was a research student at the Institut Français in Berlin and Freiburg, Germany. He discovered the works of Edmund Husserl (1859–1938) and Martin Heidegger (1889–1976) and began to philosophize on phenomenology, or the study of human awareness. A series of works on the models of consciousness poured from Sartre's pen: two works on imagination, one on self-consciousness, and one on emotions. He also produced a first-rate volume of short stories, *The Wall* (1939).

Sartre returned to Paris to teach in a lycée and to continue his writing, but this was interrupted by World War II (1939–45; a war in which France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, the United States and other countries fought against Germany, Italy, and Japan). Called up by the army, he served briefly on the Eastern front and was taken prisoner. After nine months he secured his release and

returned to teaching in Paris, where he became active in the Resistance, a secret French group dedicated to removing the occupying German army. During this period he wrote his first major work in philosophy, *Being and Nothingness: An Essay in Phenomenological Ontology* (1943).

After the war Sartre abandoned teaching, determined to support himself by writing. He was also determined that his writing and thinking should be engaging, or intellectually activating. Intellectuals, he thought, must take a public stand on every great question of their day. He thus became fundamentally a moralist (a teacher of right and wrong), both in his philosophical and literary works.

Other works

Sartre had turned to playwriting and eventually produced a series of theatrical successes which are essentially dramatizations of ideas, although they contain some finely drawn characters and lively plots. The first two, *The Flies* and *No Exit*, were produced in occupied Paris. They were followed by *Dirty Hands* (1948), usually called his best play; *The Devil and the Good Lord* (1957), an insulting, anti-Christian rant; and *The Prisoners of Altona* (1960), which combined convincing character portrayal with telling social criticism. Sartre also wrote a number of comedies: *The Respectful Prostitute* (1946), *Kean* (1954), and *Nekrassov* (1956), which the critic Henry Peyre claimed "reveals him as the best comic talent of our times."

During this same period Sartre also wrote a three-volume novel, *The Roads to Freedom* (1945–1949); formal writings on literature; lengthy studies of Charles Baudelaire (1821–1867) and Jean Genet (1910–1986);



Jean-Paul Sartre.

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and a large number of reviews and criticisms. He also edited *Les Temps modernes*.

Though never a member of the Communist Party (a political party that believes goods and services should be controlled by a strong government), Sartre usually sympathized with the political views of the (liberal) far left. Whatever the political issue, he was quick to publish his opinions, often combining them with public acts of protest.

Later work

In 1960 Sartre returned to philosophy, publishing the first volume of his *Critique of*

Dialectical Reason. It represented essentially a modification of his existentialist ideas, or a philosophy that stresses the importance of the individual experience. The drift of Sartre's earlier work was toward a sense of the uselessness of life. In *Being and Nothingness* he declared man to be "a useless passion," forced to exercise a meaningless freedom. But after World War II, his new interest in social and political questions gave way to more optimistic and activist views.

Sartre was always controversial yet respected. In 1964 he was awarded but refused to accept the Nobel Prize in literature. Sartre suffered from declining health throughout the 1970s and died from lung problems in 1980. He is remembered as one of the most influential French writer of the twentieth century.

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OSKAR SCHINDLER

Born: April 28, 1908

Zwittau, Moravia, Austro-Hungarian Empire

Died: October 9, 1974

Frankfurt, Germany

German businessman

German businessman Oskar Schindler became an unlikely hero when he saved hundreds of Jews in Poland and Czechoslovakia from death at the hands of the Nazis during World War II (1939–45). By employing them in his factory, Schindler protected them from the wrath of the Nazi Party and preserved generations of Jewish families.

Early years

Oskar Schindler was born in 1908 in the industrial city of Zwittau, Moravia, then a German province of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and now part of the Czech Republic. The region where Oskar grew up and attended a German-language school was also known as the Sudetenland. Oskar's father, Hans Schindler, was a factory owner and his mother, Louisa Schindler, was a homemaker. Oskar had one younger sister named Elfriede with whom he had a close relationship, despite a seven-year age difference. As a child, Schindler was popular and had many friends, but he was not an exceptional student. Among his childhood playmates were the two sons of a local rabbi.

During the 1920s Schindler worked for his father selling farm equipment. In 1928, however, the young man's marriage to a woman named Emilie caused problems in the relationship between the two men and Schindler left his father's business to work as a sales manager for a Moravian electric company.

Meanwhile, the political landscape in Europe was undergoing major changes, especially in Germany, where Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) and his Nazi Party began their rise to power. Hitler began stirring up ethnic feelings among the Sudeten Germans, point-

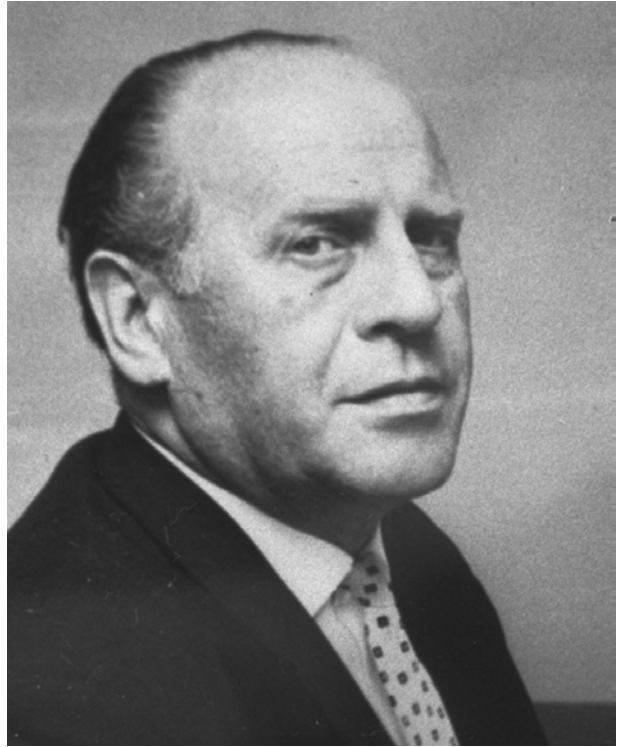
ing out that their “rightful” ties were with Germany, not Czechoslovakia. By 1935 many Sudeten Germans joined the pro-Nazi Sudeten German Party. Schindler joined, too—not out of any love for the Nazis, but because it made business sense to go along with the prevailing wind.

In Poland

On September 1, 1939, Hitler invaded Poland, prompting Great Britain and France to declare war on Germany. Within a week, Schindler arrived in Krakow, Poland, eager to find a way to profit from the conflict in one way or another. In mid-October, the city became the new seat (central location) of government for all of Nazi-occupied Poland. Schindler quickly created friendships with key officers in both the Wehrmacht (the German army) and the SS (the special armed Nazi unit), offering them black-market (illegal) goods such as cognac and cigars.

It was around this same time that he met Itzhak Stern, a Jewish accountant who would eventually help his relations with the local Jewish business community. Schindler purchased a bankrupt kitchenware factory and opened it in January 1940. Stern was hired on as the bookkeeper and soon developed a close relationship with his employer.

Schindler relied on his legendary flair as well as his willingness to bribe the right people to secure numerous German army contracts for his pots and pans. To staff his factory, he turned to Krakow’s Jewish community, which, Stern told him, was a good source of cheap, reliable labor. At the time, some fifty-six thousand Jews lived in the city, most living in ghettos (poor neighborhoods that were traditionally reserved for Jews).



Oskar Schindler.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

By the spring of 1940, the Nazi crackdown against Jews had begun. Schindler was ordered to pay his Jewish employees’ wages directly to the SS rather than to the workers themselves. In August Nazi authorities issued a new regulation ordering all but “work-essential” Jews to leave the city. This sparked the panic that sent Jews scrambling for work that would be considered “essential.”

His work begins

In June of 1942, the Nazis began relocating Krakow’s Jews to labor camps. Some of Schindler’s workers, including his office manager, were among the first group of people

ordered to report to the train station. Schindler raced to the station and argued with an SS officer about how essential his workers were to the war effort. By dropping the names of some of his Nazi friends and making a couple of threats, he was finally able to rescue the workers and escort them safely back to his factory.

In early 1943 the Nazis ordered the final “liquidation” of the Krakow ghetto. The man put in charge of the operation was a young SS officer named Amon Goeth, the commandant of the Plaszow forced labor camp just outside the city. Jews who were healthy and could work were sent to Plaszow and the rest were sent off to death camps or executed on the spot. When Goeth announced that local industries would be moved inside Plaszow, Schindler proposed establishing a labor mini-camp within his factory that would continue to employ his own workers. Goeth agreed after Schindler bribed him.

The list

In early 1944, however, Plaszow’s designation was changed from that of a labor camp to a concentration camp. This meant that its prisoners were suddenly marked for transport to death camps such as Auschwitz. Then came word in the summer that the main camp was to be closed as well as Schindler’s factory. Schindler approached Goeth about moving his factory and his workers to Czechoslovakia so that they might continue to supply the Third Reich (Hitler’s army) with vital war supplies. After another bribe, the SS officer agreed to throw his support behind the plan and told Schindler to draw up a list of those people he wanted to take with him. Schindler was now faced with the task of choosing those he wanted to save—literally a

matter of life and death. Schindler came up with a list containing some eleven hundred names, including all the employees of Emalia Camp and a number of others as well.

During the fall of 1944, Schindler made the necessary arrangements (and paid the necessary bribes) to begin the process of moving his factory to the town of Brunnitz, Czechoslovakia. The liquidation of the Plaszow camp began that October. Shortly after around eight hundred men were shipped out in boxcars bound for Brunnitz. Three hundred women and children who were supposed to join them there were mistakenly routed to Auschwitz instead. Schindler immediately rescued these women and children, and they were sent on to Brunnitz.

Over the next seven months, Schindler’s factory never produced a single useful shell (the outer casings for bullets). He called it “start-up difficulties” when, in reality, he had purposefully weakened the manufacturing process to make sure that the shells failed quality-control tests.

End of the war

Finally, on May 8, 1945, the war came to an end after Germany surrendered. Schindler gathered all of his workers together on the factory floor to pass along the good news. He then asked them not to seek revenge for what had been done to them and called for a moment of silence in memory of those who had died. He also thanked the members of the SS who were present and encouraged them to go home peacefully and without further bloodshed.

Fearing capture, Schindler, along with his wife, fled west to avoid Russian troops advancing from the east. He preferred to take

his chances with the approaching U.S. forces instead. A couple of days later, the twelve hundred or so Schindlerjuden (“Shindler’s Jews”) were freed by a lone Russian officer who rode up to the factory on horseback.

After World War II

Schindler’s postwar life was similar to that before the war, which was marked by a string of failed business ventures, overspending, plenty of drinking, and love affairs. In 1949 Schindler moved to Argentina and purchased a farm. By 1957, however, Schindler had gone bankrupt and was relying on the charity of the Jewish organization B’nai B’rith to survive.

In 1958 Schindler abandoned his wife and returned to West Germany. Once again, the Jewish Distribution Committee and several grateful individuals came through for him with money. He started a cement business in Frankfurt, Germany, but it failed in 1961. From then on, he lived mostly off funds provided by the Schindlerjuden as well as a small pension (retirement money) the West German government granted him in 1968.

The same year Schindler lost his cement business, he was invited to visit Israel for the first time. He was delighted with the warm reception he received, which contrasted sharply with his treatment at home. Many of his countrymen were angry with him for saving Jews and testifying in court against Nazi war criminals. Every spring for the rest of his life, he returned to Israel for several weeks to bask in the admiration of the Schindlerjuden and their offspring, whom he regarded with great affection as his own family.

Shortly after Schindler’s fifty-fourth

birthday in 1962, he was officially declared a “Righteous Gentile (non-Jew)” and invited to plant a tree on the Avenue of the Righteous leading up to Jerusalem’s Yad Vashem Museum, a memorial to the Holocaust, the name for the German liquidation of Jews during World War II. Upon his death from heart and liver problems in 1974, he was granted his request to be buried in Israel. About five hundred Schindlerjuden attended his funeral and watched as his body was laid to rest in the Catholic cemetery on Mount Zion in Jerusalem. Thanks to Oskar Schindler, more than six thousand Holocaust survivors and their descendants were alive in the 1990s to tell the remarkable story of “Schindler’s List.”

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ARTHUR SCHLESINGER JR.

Born: October 15, 1917

Columbus, Ohio

American historian and politician

Arthur Schlesinger Jr. is an outstanding historian of the United States and an influential supporter of the Democratic Party.

Influenced by father's work

Arthur Meier Schlesinger Jr. was born on October 15, 1917, in Columbus, Ohio, with the name Arthur Bancroft Schlesinger, later changed by dropping his mother's maiden name and taking his father's full name. Schlesinger's father was one of the leading historians of the 1920s and 1930s. Arthur Schlesinger Sr. (1888–1965) taught one of the first college courses in American social and cultural history (in the early 1920s), he was a leader in the study of social history, and, as a professor at Harvard University between the two world wars, he directed the graduate work of several students who became noted social and intellectual historians. Thus, young Arthur was surrounded by American history.

Arthur Jr. graduated from Harvard University at age twenty and published his honors thesis (a written essay containing original research presented for an advanced degree) one year later. He then spent a year studying in England but did not pursue further degrees. During part of World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Italy, Japan, and Germany—and the Allies: France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States) he served in the U.S. government's Office of War Information. As a member in the Society of Fellows at Harvard he was able to do the research for *The Age of Jackson*, a biography of the seventh U.S. president, Andrew Jackson (1767–1845), which was published in 1945.

Expresses support for Democratic presidents

Though Schlesinger Sr. was a liberal (a person open to social improvement through change) and a Democrat, his work as a historian generally was not used to further his political views. Schlesinger Jr. was more active in politics, and it was his political involvement and the relation of his writing to that involvement that made him a public figure of unusual interest.

The Age of Jackson, which Schlesinger Jr. wrote during Franklin D. Roosevelt's (1882–1945) fourth term as president, argued that the reform era in the years before the American Civil War (1861–65; a war fought between the U.S. government and eleven southern states over opposing views on issues such as slavery and trade) was a reaction to one of many conservative (opposed to social change) periods that failed to address the nation's problems. Schlesinger argued that democracy under Jackson was a social movement that began among poor people in the eastern and southern parts of the country. This theory of regional organization was also linked to Roosevelt's New Deal (1933–39), a series of programs that attempted to carry out political, business, and social reform. It was said that *The Age of Jackson* "voted" for Roosevelt as well as Jackson. The book was awarded the Pulitzer Prize, and Schlesinger was appointed to the Harvard history department, joining his father.

In 1949 Schlesinger published *The Vital Center: The Politics of Freedom*, a history of American social thought organized around the political issues of the years following World War II (1939–45). *The Vital Center* "voted" for Harry Truman (1884–1972),

whose election as president had taken place one year earlier, both in terms of his support of domestic programs, such as those of the New Deal, and in his opposition to totalitarianism (the complete control of power by a government). *The Vital Center* remains a lasting description of the ideas of the mainstream of the Democratic Party.

While Schlesinger was a Harvard professor, he moved his focus from the period before the Civil War to that of the New Deal. Teaching American intellectual history from the colonies to the present, Schlesinger concentrated his research on the *Age of Roosevelt* and published the first three volumes covering the years to 1936: *The Crisis of the Old Order* (1957); *The Coming of the New Deal* (1958); and *The Politics of Upheaval* (1960). In the mid-1980s he resumed work on his multivolume history of the New Deal.

Advisor to Kennedy

Schlesinger was an active supporter of Adlai Stevenson (1900–1965) in Stevenson's unsuccessful bids for the presidency in 1952 and 1956, and he served as a speechwriter for John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) during his 1960 campaign for the presidency. *Kennedy or Nixon: Does it Make Any Difference* (1960) made his case for Kennedy. After serving in the White House as a special assistant to Kennedy (it was said that the two men met every day) and resigning his position at Harvard, Schlesinger wrote *A Thousand Days: John F. Kennedy in the White House* (1965), for which he was again awarded a Pulitzer Prize.

Schlesinger continued to express his ideas in book reviews on other works in American intellectual, political, and social history. He became the Albert Schweitzer Profes-



Arthur Schlesinger Jr.

sor of Humanities at the City University of New York in 1966 and president of the American Institute of Arts and Letters in 1981. In addition, he served as editor of the *History of American Presidential Elections* (four volumes, 1971), and in 1986 he wrote fourteen essays describing *The Cycles of American History*.

Cycles of history

Following Bill Clinton's (1946–) 1992 presidential nomination acceptance speech, Schlesinger stated that a new era in the United States had begun. He based his opinion on the cycles of American history theory put forth by his father. The elder Schlesinger predicted in 1939 that the New Deal would run out of

steam in the mid-1940s. It would give way to a conservative tide, he predicted, which in turn would yield a new liberal era starting in 1962. The next conservative phase would begin around 1978.

On the strength of this record, it was logical to predict, as the younger Schlesinger did in 1986, that at some point, shortly before or after the year 1990, there should come a sharp change in the national mood and direction. The reason each phase returned at roughly thirty-year periods, Schlesinger said, was because generational change kept the cycle going. But because each generation retained its belief in its youthful dreams, Schlesinger continued, the forward movement was guaranteed.

During the 1990s Schlesinger was among an increasing number of political observers who recognized that all was not well with multiculturalism (the maintenance of many different cultures and ethnic traditions); he felt that placing too great an influence on maintaining original cultures inside the United States made it impossible for there to exist a single, unified "American" culture at the same time. This led to the 1998 publication of *The Disuniting of America: Reflections on a Multicultural Society*, a new, enlarged edition of Schlesinger's 1991 book about the subject. Also in 1998, Schlesinger was awarded a National Humanities Medal by President Clinton for his contributions to history. In 2000 Schlesinger published *A Life in the 20th Century: Innocent Beginnings, 1917–1950*, the first volume of his memoirs (remembrances of his life), in which he took a look back at the past century.

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FRANZ SCHUBERT

Born: January 31, 1797

Vienna, Austria

Died: November 19, 1828

Vienna, Austria

Austrian composer

Franz Schubert, an early romantic Austrian composer, is best known for his lieder (German art songs for voice and piano) during the nineteenth century. A new profusion of lyric poetry and the evolution of the piano into a highly complex mechanism allowed the gifted Schubert to compose exceptional lyrics.

Childhood and training

Franz Peter Schubert was born in Vienna, Austria, on January 31, 1797, the fourth son of Franz Theodor Schubert, a schoolmaster, and Elizabeth Vietz, a domestic servant in Vienna. Encouraged to pursue his talents in music, Franz received instruction in the violin from his father, his older brother Ignaz, and Michael Holzer, the organist at the Liechtenthal parish church.

In 1808, through a competitive examination, the eleven-year-old Schubert was

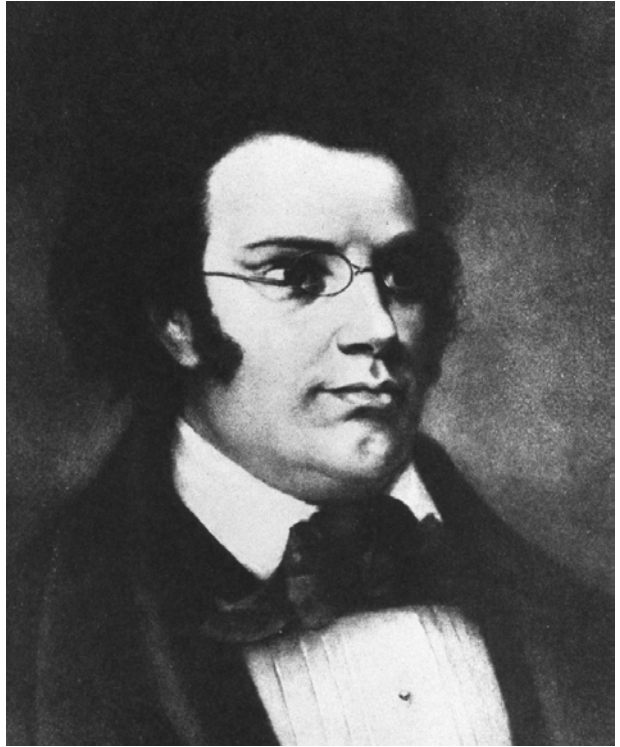
accepted into the choir of the Imperial Court Chapel as well as the Royal Seminary. Although he was homesick, he was an outstanding student. Besides singing in the choir, he played in the orchestra. He became familiar at this time with the music of Franz Joseph Haydn (1732–1809), Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756–1791), and Ludwig von Beethoven (1770–1827).

Schubert was a shy youth, and spent most of his spare time practicing and composing by himself. He left the choir at age fifteen when his voice changed, but continued to study at the seminary. Antonio Salieri, the emperor's music director, heard about Schubert's talents and took him in as a student.

Early period

In 1814 the genius of Schubert was first made evident in his work *Gretchen am Spinnrade*, inspired by his reading of Johann Wolfgang von Goethe's (1749–1832) *Faust*. His first Mass and his first symphony appeared about this time and showed the influence of Haydn. Schubert set five other Goethe songs to music that year. By the end of 1814 Schubert was an assistant at his father's school and had begun to make the acquaintance of numerous poets, lawyers, singers, and actors, who soon would be the principal performers of his works at private concerts in their homes or in those of their wealthier friends.

Other eighteenth-century lyric poets whose works Schubert set to music include J. G. von Herder, the collector and translator of folk songs, F. G. Klopstock, and Friedrich von Schiller (1759–1805). None can compare, however, with the remarkable Goethe songs. Even the uninitiated (not educated on a particular subject) must respond to the



Franz Schubert.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

excitement of the *Erlkönig* (1815), where by means of changing accompaniment figures, sharp dissonance (an arrangement of clashing chords), and effective modulations (the shifting of one musical tone to another) Schubert makes a distinction between the four characters of the ballad—narrator, father, son, and Erlking—and creates one of the masterpieces of romantic music.

While still a schoolmaster, Schubert composed Symphonies No. 2 through No. 5. At this time he also wrote many of the delightful dances, waltzes, and *Ländler* (a type of Austrian waltz for which he was known during his lifetime).

By 1817 Schubert was living in the home of his friend Franz von Schober, where he wrote several piano sonatas (instrumental music composed of four contrasting movements). In his father's house there had been no piano. Examination of the sonatas proves Schubert to have been rather daring in his juxtaposition (placing one next to another) of keys, particularly in development sections. In addition to instrumental compositions, Schubert wrote fifty songs in 1817. In July 1817 Schubert was appointed to the household of Count Esterhazy and his family, who spent winters in an estate slightly north of Schönbrunn and summers at Zseliz in Hungary. There Schubert composed many of his works for piano duets.

Middle period

Between 1820 and 1823 Schubert achieved his musical maturity. Two of his operettas and several of his songs were performed in public and amateurs and professional quartets sang his part-songs for male voices. Some of his works began to be published and performed in private concerts.

In September 1821 Schubert and Schober left Vienna for the country with the intention of writing *Alfonso und Estrella*, his only grand opera. Shortly after his return to the city, he met Edward Bauernfeld, who introduced him to William Shakespeare's (1564–1616) works. In the fall of 1822, having completed his Mass in A-flat, Schubert began work on the Symphony in B Minor, which became known as the *Unfinished*. Three movements were sketched; two were completed. It is not known why the work was left incomplete.

Schubert's health began to fail, and in May he spent time in the Vienna General Hospital. *Rosamunde*, a play for which Schubert

had written incidental music—only the overture and ballet music are heard today—failed in 1823 and brought to a close his extended efforts to achieve a successful opera.

Schubert now turned to chamber music, producing an Octet for woodwinds and strings and his A Minor, D Minor, and G Major Quartets. In 1825 Schubert formed the mainstay of the Schubertiads, evenings at which Schubert's songs were sung.

Final years

In 1826 and 1827, despite the reappearance of his illness, Schubert wrote four masterpieces, each of which has remained a staple in his repertory (works commonly performed): the String Quartet in G, the Piano Sonata in G, the Piano Trio in B-flat, and the second Piano Trio in E-flat. Schubert was one of the torchbearers at Beethoven's funeral in 1827. Toward the end of that year Schubert completed his two series of piano pieces that he himself entitled *Impromptus*.

In 1828 Schubert composed several first-rate works: the magnificent F-Minor Fantasy for piano duet, the C-Major Symphony, the E-flat Mass, and nine songs to Ludwig Rellstab's poems. On March 26, 1828, Schubert participated in the only full-scale public concert devoted solely to his own works.

On November 11, Schubert began suffering from nausea and headache. Five days later the doctors diagnosed typhoid fever (a bacteria-caused disease marked with fever and the swelling of intestines). He died on November 19, 1828.

The impact of Schubert's work

In musical history Schubert stands with others at the beginning of the romantic

movement, anticipating the highly personal approach to composition of later composers but lacking the forcefulness and the creative means to experiment with instrumental music that Beethoven displayed.

Many of Schubert's large-scale instrumental pieces were unknown until after the middle of the nineteenth century. Moreover, unlike many other romantic composers, Schubert did not try a literary career. He was never a conductor or virtuoso (extremely gifted and skillful) performer. He did not achieve considerable public recognition during his lifetime. However, there is a lasting quality to Schubert's work that reaches out over the ages which few composers have matched.

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CHARLES M. SCHULZ

Born: November 26, 1922
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Died: February 12, 2000

Santa Rosa, California

American cartoonist

Cartoonist and creator of *Peanuts*, Charles M. Schulz was the winner of two Reuben, two Peabody, and five Emmy awards and a member of the Cartoonist Hall of Fame.

Early life

Charles Monroe Schulz was born in Minneapolis, Minnesota, on November 26, 1922, the son of Carl and Dena Halverson Schulz. His father was a barber. Charles loved to read the comics section of the newspaper with his father and was given the nickname "Sparky" after Sparkplug, the horse in the *Barney Google* comic strip. He began to draw pictures of his favorite cartoon characters at age six. At school in St. Paul, Minnesota, he was bright and allowed to skip two grades, which made him often the smallest in his class. Noting his interest in drawing, his mother encouraged him to take a correspondence course (in which lessons and exercises are mailed to students and then returned when completed) from Art Instruction, Inc., in Minneapolis after he graduated from high school.

During World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis: Italy, Japan, and Germany—and the Allies: France, England, the Soviet Union, and the United States), Schulz was drafted into the army and sent to Europe, rising to the rank of sergeant. After the war he returned to Minnesota as a young man with strong Christian beliefs. For a while he worked part-time for a Catholic magazine and taught for Art Instruction, Inc. Some of



Charles M. Schulz.

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his work appeared in the *Saturday Evening Post*, and eventually he created a cartoon entitled *Li'l Folks* for the *St. Paul Pioneer Press*.

Creates "Peanuts"

In 1950 the United Feature Syndicate of New York decided to publish Schulz's new comic strip, which he had wanted to call *Li'l Folks* but which was named *Peanuts* by the company. In 1950 the cartoon began appearing in seven newspapers with the characters Charlie Brown, Shermey, Patty, and Snoopy. Within a year the strip appeared in thirty-five papers, and by 1956 it was in over a hundred. The *Peanuts* cartoons were centered on

the simple and touching figures of a boy, Charlie Brown, and his dog, Snoopy and their family and school friends. Adults were never seen, only hinted at, and the action involved ordinary, everyday happenings.

Charlie Brown had a round head with half-circles for ears and nose, dots for eyes, and a line for a mouth. Things always seemed to go wrong for him, and he was often puzzled by the problems that life and his peers dealt out to him: the crabbiness of Lucy; the unanswerable questions of Linus, a young intellectual with a security blanket; the self-absorption of Schroeder the musician; the teasing of his schoolmates; and the behavior of Snoopy, the floppy-eared dog with the wild imagination, who sees himself as a fighter pilot trying to shoot down the Red Baron (based on a famous German pilot during World War I) when he is not running a "Beagle Scout" troop consisting of the bird, Woodstock, and his friends.

Charlie Brown's inability to cope with the constant disappointments in life, the failure and renewal of trust (such as Lucy's tricking him every time he tries to kick the football), and his touching efforts to accept what happens as deserved were traits shared to a lesser degree by the other characters. Even crabby Lucy cannot interest Schroeder or understand baseball; Linus is puzzled by life's mysteries and the refusal of the "Great Pumpkin" to show up on Halloween. The odd elements and defects of humanity in general were reflected by Schulz's gentle humor, which made the cartoon appealing to the public.

Schulz insisted that he was not trying to send any moral and religious messages in *Peanuts*. However, even to the casual reader *Peanuts* offered lessons to be learned. Schulz

employed everyday humor to make a point, but usually it was the intellectual comment that carries the charge, even if it was only “Good Grief!” Grief was the human condition, but it was good when it taught us something about ourselves and was lightened by laughter.

Huge success

As the strip became more popular, new characters were added, including Sally, Charlie Brown’s sister; Rerun, Lucy’s brother; Peppermint Patty; Marcie; Franklin; José Peterson; Pigpen; Snoopy’s brother Spike; and the bird, Woodstock. Schulz received the Reuben award from the National Cartoonists Society in 1955 and 1964.

By this time Schulz was famous across the world. *Peanuts* appeared in over twenty-three hundred newspapers. The cartoon branched out into television, and in 1965 the classic special *A Charlie Brown Christmas* won Peabody and Emmy awards. Many more television specials and Emmys were to follow. An off-Broadway stage production, *You’re a Good Man, Charlie Brown*, was created in 1967 and ran for four years (it was also revived in 1999). Many volumes of Schulz’s work were published in at least nineteen languages, and the success of *Peanuts* inspired clothes, stationery, toys, games, and other merchandise. Schulz also wrote a book, *Why, Charlie Brown, Why?* (which became a CBS television special) to help children understand the subject of cancer (his mother had died of cancer in 1943).

Besides the previously mentioned awards, Schulz received the Yale Humor Award, 1956; School Bell Award, National Education Association, 1960; and honorary

degrees from Anderson College, 1963, and St. Mary’s College of California, 1969. A “Charles M. Schulz Award” honoring comic artists was created by the United Feature Syndicate in 1980.

Later years

The year 1990 marked the fortieth anniversary of *Peanuts*. An exhibit at the Louvre, in Paris, France, called “Snoopy in Fashion,” featured three hundred Snoopy dolls dressed in fashions created by more than fifteen world-famous designers. It later traveled to the United States. Also in 1990, the Smithsonian Institution featured an exhibit titled, “This Is Your Childhood, Charlie Brown . . . Children in American Culture, 1945–1970.” By the late 1990s *Peanuts* ran in over two thousand newspapers throughout the world every day.

Schulz was diagnosed with cancer in November 1999 after the disease was discovered during an unrelated operation. He announced in December 1999 that he would retire in the year 2000, the day after the final *Peanuts* strip. Schulz died on February 12, 2000, one day before his farewell strip was to be in newspapers. Schulz was twice married, to Joyce Halverson in 1949 (divorced 1972) and to Jean Clyde in 1973. He had five children by his first marriage.

In March 2000 the Board of Supervisors of Sonoma County, California, passed a resolution to rename Sonoma County Airport after Schulz. In June 2000 plans were announced for bronze sculptures of eleven *Peanuts* characters to be placed on the St. Paul riverfront. That same month President Bill Clinton (1946–) signed a bill giving Schulz the Congressional Gold Medal. In

2002 an exhibition entitled “Speak Softly and Carry a Beagle: The Art of Charles Schulz” was held at the Norman Rockwell Museum in Stockbridge, Massachusetts. Also in 2002, it was announced that the proposed Charles M. Schulz Museum and Research Center in Santa Rosa, California, would be completed in August 2003.

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MARTIN SCORSESE

Born: November 17, 1942

Flushing, New York

American director and screenwriter

Martin Scorsese is a director and writer of highly personal films. While many of his works reflect his experience as an Italian American grow-

ing up in New York City, he has also made highly regarded movies of great works of literature.

His early years

Martin Scorsese was born on November 17, 1942, in Flushing, New York. He was the younger of two sons born to Charles and Catherine Scorsese of Sicilian descent. His father was a clothes presser, and his mother was a seamstress. Scorsese had asthma as a child, and he often spent time alone unable to participate in neighborhood activities. He was fascinated with movies and watched films on television, and his father took him to local theaters frequently while his healthier peers engaged in sports and more social activities. Scorsese was able to find in movies the thrills and excitement that did not exist for him in reality. At a young age he became an expert on the Hollywood movies of the 1940s and 1950s.

Originally, Scorsese wanted to become a priest. He attended a Catholic grade school and entered a junior seminary but left after one year. He then entered the Film School at New York University. Scorsese's *It's Not Just You Murray!* won the Producer's Guild Award for best student film in 1964. He also received awards for other short films that he made as an undergraduate.

Drew from own experience

After graduating, Scorsese remained at New York University as an instructor in basic film technique and criticism while beginning his career as a director. His first feature film, *Who's That Knocking at My Door*, was shown in 1969. It introduced the actor Harvey Keitel (1939–), who became a regular in Scors-

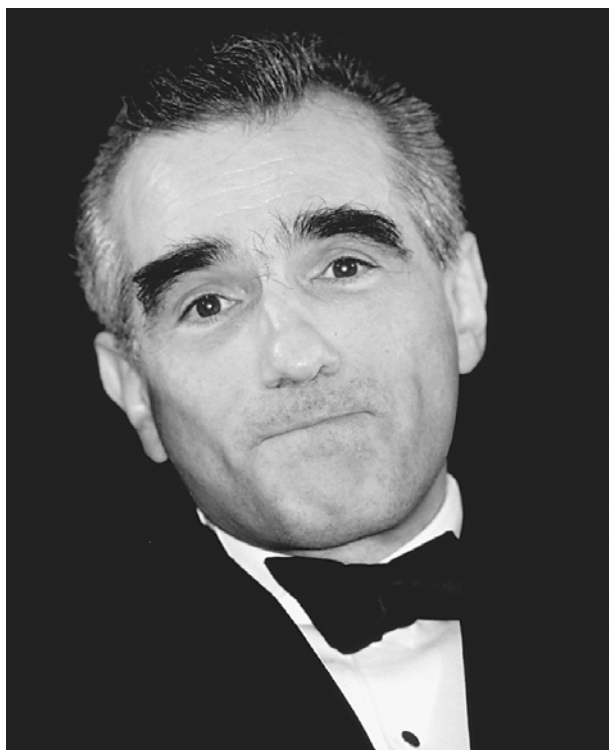
ese's works. The director also frequently casts his mother, Catherine, in his films, and Scorsese himself has acted in some as well.

Outraged by the killing of four Kent State student protesters of the Vietnam War (1960–75; a war in which the United States aided South Vietnam in an attempt to prevent a takeover by Communist North Vietnam), and of war in general, Scorsese and some of his students formed a group, the New York Cinetracks Collective, to film student protests against the conflict. The result was *Street Scenes*, shown at the 1970 New York Film Festival, which called for a withdrawal of U.S. troops from Vietnam as well as an end to the Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC; an organization that trains college students for the military) on all U.S. college campuses.

Moves to Hollywood

In the early 1970s Scorsese moved to Hollywood, in Los Angeles, California, and met the producer and director Roger Corman, who asked him to direct a sequel to his *Bloody Mama*. Instead, Scorsese directed Corman's *Boxcar Bertha*, a 1972 gangster film similar to *Bonnie and Clyde*. According to Ephraim Katz in *The Film Encyclopedia*, *Boxcar Bertha* "gave the young director the opportunity to work within the Hollywood system and paved the way to his phenomenal [extraordinary] rise in the coming years."

Next on the filmmaker's career path was a return to familiar turf in *Mean Streets*, a 1973 release about a young Italian American trying to get by in a tough environment. Emphasizing character development over plot, *Mean Streets* featured a style of quick cuts that Scorsese used in later works. It also marked the director's first creative pairing with the



Martin Scorsese.

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actor Robert De Niro (1943–), whom Scorsese had grown up with in the Little Italy section of New York City. Their work together evolved into one of the most successful director and actor partnerships in modern film.

Ventures into new areas

Scorsese also began directing documentaries (films that follow real people and real events) in the 1970s. These included *Italianamerican*, a profile of his parents released in 1974, and *American Boy*, a 1978 account of a friend who had immersed himself in the drug culture of the 1960s. He veered away from his usual movie themes with *Alice*

Doesn't Live Here Anymore in 1975, a film about a widowed mother trying to find herself in Arizona. Scorsese followed with his first major hit, *Taxi Driver* (1976). *Taxi Driver* was awarded the International Grand Prize at the Cannes Film Festival. The director's nostalgic (remembering in a sentimental way) look at his city after World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis power: Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), called *New York, New York* proved a critical failure in 1977, despite having the star power of Robert De Niro and Liza Minnelli (1946–). Scorsese became depressed as well as physically ill and required hospitalization following the making of this film.

Scorsese returned to documentaries in the late 1970s by directing a film of the final concert of the rock group the Band entitled *The Last Waltz*. De Niro convinced Scorsese to direct *Raging Bull*, a saga of the boxer Jake LaMotta (1922–). The movie earned Scorsese the National Society of Film Critics Award for Best Director, as well as his first Academy Award nomination. *Raging Bull* was later named the best film of the decade in a movie critics' poll. *The King of Comedy*, a 1983 film about a failed comic who kidnaps a famous talk-show host, was one of Scorsese's less successful efforts. It featured Robert De Niro and Jerry Lewis (1935–). Praises came his way again for his direction of *After Hours*, an unusual comedy about a mild-mannered New York City resident who gets involved in a series of late-night mishaps. Scorsese was honored with the Best Director Award at the Cannes Film Festival for this effort.

Box-office success greeted Scorsese's *The Color of Money* in 1986, a sequel to *The Hus-*

bler starring Paul Newman (1925–). It represented one of Scorsese's few big-budget productions up to that time. Certain religious groups were outraged by his next release, 1988's *The Last Temptation of Christ*, which dealt with an alternative interpretation of Jesus' acceptance of his role on earth.

Scorsese returned to more familiar cinematic ground in 1990 with *Goodfellas*, a violent tale of Mafia (organized crime) hoodlums in New York City that earned him Best Director Awards from the National Society of Film Critics, New York Film Critics, and Los Angeles Film Critics.

Showed versatility with period piece

Scorsese surprised the film community by his filming of *Age of Innocence*, the Edith Wharton (1862–1937) novel set in nineteenth-century New York City. "I had the script in my mind for two years and wrote it in two and half weeks," Scorsese told the magazine *Interview* about the film in 1993. Richly produced and slowly paced, it resembled nothing in Scorsese's directorial past. However, Scorsese jumped back to modern times with a tale of greed and deception in Las Vegas with his 1995 release, *Casino*. Scorsese's next film, *Kundun*, the story of Tibet's exiled spiritual leader, the Dalai Lama (1935–), was released in September 1997.

Scorsese showed his support of film history in 1990 by becoming president of the Film Foundation, an organization dedicated to film preservation. He has also been very active in promoting independent filmmakers. In 1994 became a member of the advisory board for the Independent Film Channel on cable television. The American Film Institute awarded Scorsese its 1997 Life Achievement

Award. In the same year he was awarded the Wexner Prize for originality in the arts. In 2001, because of his efforts to preserve old films, Scorsese was honored as the first person to receive the award for preservation by the International Federation of Film Archives.

Scorsese has directed twenty feature films and documentaries spanning four decades. He has also written a number of screenplays since his first film was released in 1968. His work is often rooted in his life experience of an Italian American Catholic heritage. The director's success can be attributed to his keen insight into human nature and his ability to use that insight to create many of the film industry's most memorable characters.

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WALTER SCOTT

Born: August 15, 1771
Edinburgh, Scotland

Died: September 21, 1832

Abbotsford, Scotland

Scottish author

The Scottish novelist and poet Sir Walter Scott is recognized as the master of the historical novel. He was one of the most influential authors of modern times.

Early life

Walter Scott was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, on August 15, 1771, the son of a lawyer with a long family tradition in law. By birth Scott was connected with both the rising middle class of Britain and the aristocratic (ruling class) Scottish heritage then passing into history. As a child, Scott battled polio, a disease that attacks children and impairs their development. Despite the ailment, Scott did enjoy a relatively active and happy childhood. During these years he developed a deep interest in literature and reading, especially the folk tales and legends of his native Scotland.

Scott was educated at Edinburgh University and prepared for a career in law, but his true passions lay in history and literature. During his years at the university, he read widely in English and Continental literatures, particularly medieval and Renaissance romances from the fourteenth to seventeenth centuries. He also enjoyed German romantic poetry and fiction, and the narrative folk poems known as ballads.

Translations and poetry

From these intense interests Scott's earliest publications developed: a translation of



Walter Scott.

J. W. von Goethe's (1749–1832) play *Götz von Berlichingen* (1799) and other translations from German; *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border* (1802–1803), a collection of ballads that generated great interest in folk poetry; and a succession of narrative poems, mainly of historical action. These poems—including *The Lay of the Last Minstrel* (1805), *Marmion* (1808), and *The Lady of the Lake* (1810)—became best sellers, and Scott established his first literary reputation as a poet of the romantic school, an artistic movement developed in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

During these years Scott also pursued a legal career, rising to the official position of

clerk of the Court of Session. His enormous energies allowed him to engage in scholarly and journalistic activities. His edition and biography of John Dryden (1631–1700), the English poet and dramatist, published in 1808, remains of value. His politically motivated founding of the *Quarterly Review*, a literary journal, helped make Edinburgh the most influential center of British intellectual life outside London. In these years Scott also began to create an estate, Abbotsford. He modeled its furnishings and architecture on the traditions of the medieval era (c. 470–1470 C.E., also known as the Middle Ages).

Waverley novels

When sales of Scott's verse narrative *Rokeby* (1813) declined and a new poet, Lord Byron (1788–1824), appeared on the literary scene, Scott began to develop another of his many talents. Picking up the fragment of a novel he had begun in 1805, he tried his hand at fiction, and his most fully characteristic novel, *Waverley* (1814), resulted. As its subtitle, *'Tis Sixty Years Since*, established, *Waverley* was a historical novel about the 1745 rebellion to restore the Stuart line to the British throne. By leading a young and foolish Englishman through a wide range of Scottish classes, political factions (rival groups), and cultural modes, Scott built up a substantial picture of an entire nation's life at a dramatic historical period.

The success of *Waverley* established Scott in the career of a novelist, but it did not establish his name in that role. Unwilling to invest his career in fiction, he had published *Waverley* anonymously (without the author's name). Finding that the mask of anonymity had stimulated public interest, Scott signed

his later novels “by the Author of Waverley.” This signature became his trademark, the novels bearing it being called the “Waverley” novels. The Waverley novels exercised enormous fascination not only for Scots and Englishmen but also throughout Europe. These novels provided the characters and plots for countless stories, plays, and operas, the most famous of which is Gaetano Donizetti’s (1797–1848) opera *Lucia di Lammermoor*.

Scott’s achievement as a novelist can best be summarized by grouping his novels according to their topics and settings. His first successes were largely in the realm of Scottish history. In the order of their chronological setting (date in which the story takes place), the Scottish novels are *Castle Dangerous* (1832) and *The Fair Maid of Perth* (1828), both set in the fourteenth century; *The Monastery* and its sequel *The Abbot* (both 1820), set during the sixteenth century’s religious upheavals; *A Legend of Montrose* (1819) and *Old Mortality* (1816), which deal with the campaigns of the seventeenth-century civil wars; and a series of novels of the Jacobite (Stuart) rebellions of the eighteenth century—*Rob Roy* (1817), *Waverley*, and *Redgauntlet* (1824). Other Scottish novels indirectly related to historical themes are *The Black Dwarf* (1816), *The Heart of Midlothian* (1818), *The Bride of Lammermoor* (1819), and *The Pirate* (1822). Scott also wrote a group of novels set in his own times: *Guy Mannering* (1815), *The Antiquary* (1816), and *St. Ronan’s Well* (1824).

English novels

Scott, at a critical point of his career, turned to English history for his subject matter. Critics generally agree that the English

(and Continental—those of Europe) novels, mainly set in medieval times, are inferior, but they include Scott’s most lasting popular works. He began with *Ivanhoe* (1820) and then wrote three other novels set in the period of the Crusades: *The Talisman* (1825), *The Betrothed* (1825), and *Count Robert of Paris* (1832). *Quentin Durward* (1823) and *Anne of Geierstein* (1829) deal with the later Middle Ages, and the Renaissance is represented by *Kenilworth* (1821) and *The Fortunes of Nigel* (1822).

So massive a literary output cannot be reduced to broad generalizations. Most critics and readers seem to prefer Scott’s early novels. On the whole, Scott’s work is flawed by overly emotional writing, but his novels command the power to put modern readers in touch with men of the past.

Scott’s later years were clouded by illness, throughout which he continued to write. He spent the energies of his last years trying to write enough to recover honorably from the bankruptcy of a publishing firm in which he had invested heavily. He died in Abbotsford, Scotland, on September 21, 1832.

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HAILE SELASSIE

Born: July 23, 1892

Near Harar, Ethiopia

Died: August 27, 1975

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Ethiopian emperor

Haile Selassie was an emperor of Ethiopia whose influence as an African leader far surpassed the boundaries of his country. Although his popularity declined near the end of his sixty-year reign, Selassie remains a key figure in turning Ethiopia into a modern civilization.

Childhood

Haile Selassie was born Tafari Makonnen on July 23, 1892, the son of Ras Makonnen, a cousin and close friend of Emperor Menilek II. Baptized Lij Tafari, he is believed to be a direct descendant of King Solomon and the Queen of Sheba, two ancient rulers from the tenth century B.C.E. Raised as a Christian, Tafari was educated by private European tutors.

Haile Selassie spent his youth at the imperial court (court of the emperor) of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Surrounded by constant political plots, he learned much about the wielding of power. Menilek no doubt recognized Tafari's capacity for hard work, his excellent memory, and his mastery of detail. The emperor rewarded the youth's intellectual and personal capabilities by appointing him, at the age of fourteen, the governor of Gara Muleta in the province of Harar. When he was twenty, the emperor appointed him *dejazmatch* (commander) of the extensive province of Sidamo.

Regent and Emperor

Upon the death of Menilek in 1913, his grandson, Lij Yasu, succeeded to (gained) the throne. Yasu's apparent conversion to the religion of Islam alienated the national Christian church and gave its favor to the opposition movement led by Ras Tafari (as Haile Selassie was now named). The movement joined noblemen and high church officials in stripping Yasu of the throne in 1916. Zawditu, the daughter of Menilek, then became empress, with Ras Tafari appointed regent (acting ruler while the empress was away) and heir to the throne.

Throughout the regency the empress, conservative in nature and more concerned with religion than politics, served as opposition to Ras Tafari's rising interest in turning the country into a more modern nation. The result was an uneasy decade-long agreement between conservative and reforming forces (forces looking to make social improvements).

In 1926 Tafari took control of the army, an action that made him strong enough to assume the title of *negus* (king). Assuming this title was made possible, in part, by his success in international affairs, namely the admission of Ethiopia in 1923 to the League of Nations, a multinational organization aimed at world peace following World War I (1914–1918; a war fought mostly in Europe involving most countries on that continent and the United States). When Zawditu died in April 1930, Tafari demanded the title *negasa negast* (king of kings) and took complete control of the government with the throne name of Haile Selassie I ("Power of the Trinity").

Italian invasion

In 1931 the new emperor began to develop a written constitution (a system of basic laws of a country) to symbolize his interest in modernization and intention to increase the power of the government, which had been weakening since the death of Menilek. Haile Selassie's efforts were cut short, however, when Benito Mussolini's (1883–1945) Italy invaded the country in 1935. The Italian military used superior weaponry, airplanes, and poison gas to crush the ill-fated resistance led by the emperor. After the invasion, a fascist regime (a country under the control of an all-powerful ruler) occupied the country and marked the first loss of national independence in recorded Ethiopian history. In 1936 Haile Selassie went into exile, meaning he was forced out of the country. While in England he unsuccessfully went to the League of Nations for help.

In early 1941 British forces, aided by the heroic Ethiopian resistance, freed the country from Italian control, enabling Haile Selassie to triumphantly reenter his capital in May. The Italian colonial administration, backed by force and with a vastly improved road network, meant that the emperor returned to find a great deal of his government's independence had been destroyed, leaving him in certain ways stronger than before he left.

Throughout the next decade he rebuilt the administration; improved the army; passed legislation to regulate the government, church, and financial system; and further extended his control of the provinces (government territories) by crushing uprisings in Gojjam and Tigre. But in general the emperor had gradually grown more cautious, and he allowed few new leaders into his government.



Haile Selassie.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

In the 1950s Haile Selassie worked to absorb into Ethiopia the important Red Sea province of Eritrea (this was accomplished in 1962). Later he founded the University College of Addis Ababa, and welcomed home many Ethiopian college graduates from abroad. His Silver Jubilee (celebration of twenty-five years in power) in 1955 served as the occasion to present a revised constitution, followed in 1957 by the first general election. Haile Selassie's continued work to hold political balance between several major politicians as well as his efforts to shut out new politicians who still found few places in government, eventually led oppos-

ing elements to attempt a government coup (takeover) in December 1960. The coup failed, but it gave a short and violent message to the unchanging Ethiopian politics and hinted of future possibilities.

Pan-African leader

In the 1960s the emperor was clearly recognized as a major force in the pan-African movement (a movement dedicated to a united Africa), demonstrating his remarkable capacity for adapting to changing circumstances. It was a great personal triumph for him when, in 1963, the newly founded Organization of African Unity established its headquarters in Addis Ababa. Unlike other African leaders, Haile Selassie, of course, had not had to struggle once in office to prove his legitimate authority to his people. Rather, his control of government for more than forty years had given him enough time to demonstrate his strength.

By 1970 the emperor had slowly withdrawn from many day-to-day workings of the government and had become increasingly involved with foreign affairs. He probably made more state visits than any other head of state, enjoying such trips for their own sake even when they had little practical use. To him foreign relations brought admiration from around the world.

At home Haile Selassie showed more caution than ever in his approach to modernization. Though warm to Western advancements, throughout his long reign he never advanced faster than what was agreed upon among his peers. However, by his fortieth year in power he appeared to be more concerned with adjusting to change than with enacting change himself.

A famine, or devastating shortage of food, in Wello province in 1973 seriously hurt the reputation of Selassie's leadership. With a strain on the nation, Selassie was forced to abdicate (step down from power) on September 13, 1974. The eighty-year-old emperor Selassie spent his final year of life under house arrest (restricted to one's house by court order). His death was announced on August 27, 1975. The man who led Ethiopia for sixty years—through some of the nation's darkest times—did not even have a funeral service. The exact location of his grave has never been revealed.

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SELENA

Born: April 16, 1971
Lake Jackson, Texas
Died: March 31, 1995
Corpus Christi, Texas
Hispanic American singer

Often called the “Mexican Madonna,” Selena used her talent and voice to become one of popular music’s fastest rising stars. Although she was murdered very early in her career, she brought great exposure to Tejano, or Tex-Mex, music.

A musical family

Selena Quintanilla-Perez was born on April 16, 1971, in Lake Jackson, Texas. Her parents were Abraham Jr. and Marcella Quintanilla. Her father had led a band in the 1950s and 1960s that played early rock and roll songs mixed with traditional Mexican music. This music, later called Tejano music, would become very popular throughout the southwest United States and Mexico. Abraham eventually gave up his music career to start a family.

Selena was the youngest of the three Quintanilla children. She attended elementary school in Lake Jackson, a small town about fifty-five miles south of Houston, Texas. When she was six years old, her father saw her talent. He was teaching her older brother, Abraham III, to play guitar when Selena began to sing. The children formed a family band. They practiced almost every day.

“Selena and the Boys”

In 1980 Selena’s father opened a restaurant. The family band, called Selena y Los Dinos, would play there on weekends and at weddings and parties. Her father began to write original Spanish-language songs for the band to perform. Since Selena’s first language was English, she had to learn the words to the Spanish-language songs syllable by syllable. They had many local fans,

but the family restaurant failed and closed down. Her father moved the family to his hometown of Corpus Christi, Texas, to start over again.

Traveling all over the state, the band continued to perform their music. The concert touring paid off when the band opened for a popular Tejano act called Mazz. At age eleven, Selena took the stage by storm and the crowd loved her. At this time, Selena focused on her music but often missed classes and stopped going to school for good when she was in the eighth grade. To keep up with her schooling, she took courses through the American School in Chicago. She eventually earned her General Education Diploma (GED) in 1989, which is the same as earning a high school diploma.

Early recordings

Selena took some time out from touring to record music. For Corpus Christi’s Freddie label, Selena recorded *Mis Primeras Grabaciones* in 1984. Freddie was one of the oldest and most established Spanish-language record companies in Texas. The album and its only single, “Ya Se Va,” did not sell well. Switching to Cara and Manny record labels, Selena’s albums did not sell much better. Living in a van, the band continued to tour by opening for larger Tejano acts in the southwest United States.

For larger and larger audiences, the band learned to play many different styles of music. They played rhythm-and-blues-based music in larger cities. They played more traditional Tejano music in small Texas towns. In 1988 Selena was popular enough that she was voted the female artist of the year at the Tejano Music Awards. She would win this



Selena.

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award again for the next seven years. Her popularity increased every year.

Growing success

In 1989 Selena joined EMI Records. She suddenly had a major record company supporting her. José Behar, the head of the company's new Latin music division, knew that she could appeal to a very wide audience, not just Tejano fans. In 1991 her song with Alvaro Torres, called "Buenos Amigos," became a hit. The song went to number one on *Billboard's* Latin chart and introduced her to audiences throughout the United States. With her next hit song, "Donde Quiero Que Estes," Selena

continued to grow in popularity and reach wider and wider markets for her music.

The early 1990s included many bright spots in Selena's music and personal life. On April 2, 1992, Selena married twenty-two-year-old Christopher Perez. He was the lead guitarist in her band. Together they shared in the success and in Selena's growing popularity, particularly in Mexico. Her father was now writing more international-sounding songs for her. These new songs were not only popular in Mexico but also began to be heard throughout the United States and in South and Central America. The size of the audiences at her shows swelled. In February 1994 more than sixty thousand people saw her perform in Houston. In March 1994 her album *Selena Live* won a Grammy Award for the best Mexican American album.

Selena's growing fame also increased record sales. In July 1994 Selena released *Amor Prohibido*. The album would sell more than one million copies. It was the top selling Latin album of that year. It also was named the Tejano Music Award's album of the year.

English-language success

Selena was often compared with other English-language artists such as Madonna (1958–), Janet Jackson (1966–), and Mariah Carey (1969–). She was eager to make an album in her first language so that she could have the same kind of success that these artists had. In December 1993 Selena was moved to a record company that made mostly English-language records. She began recording English-language songs for a new album and continued performing.

On March 31, 1995, Selena was shot and killed by the president of her fan club, Yolanda

Saldívar (1960–). Millions mourned her death and with this attention she became even more famous. *Dreaming of You*, the album released after her death in 1996, contained five songs sung in English. It also contained a number of traditional Tejano songs. The album was a huge hit and sold more than a million copies. It was the wide success that Selena had always hoped for. The album also introduced Tejano music to millions of new fans. At the Houston Astrodome, a place she often performed, she was honored with a memorial concert. A movie was made about her life, starring Jennifer Lopez (1970–), a year later.

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SEQUOYAH

Born: c. 1770

Taskigi, Tennessee

Died: August 1843

Tamaulipas, Mexico

Native American scholar and linguist

Sequoyah, Cherokee scholar, is the only known Native American to have created an alphabet for his tribe. This

advance helped thousands of Cherokee to become literate (able to read and write).

Early life

Sequoyah was born at the Cherokee village of Taskigi in Tennessee. His father probably was Nathaniel Gist, a trader. His mother was part Cherokee and was abandoned by her husband before the birth of Sequoyah. He used his Cherokee name until he approached manhood, when he took the name George Guess (as he understood his father's last name to be).

Sees need for written communication

A hunter and fur trader until a crippling hunting accident, Sequoyah became an excellent silversmith (maker of products containing silver). As an adult, he had contact with white people that made him curious about "talking leaves," as he called books. He believed that if the Cherokees had a system for gathering and passing on written information, it would help them keep their independence from white people. In 1809 he decided to master this secret and to apply it to his own language. After a dozen years of ridicule and insults, he invented a Cherokee alphabet of eighty-five or eighty-six characters that allowed every sound used in Cherokee communication to be written down.

In 1821 Sequoyah demonstrated his invention before the Cherokee council, which approved his work. Within two years, thousands of Cherokee had mastered the set of symbols, an advance that led to the printing of books in the Cherokee language as well as some newspapers printed partly in Cherokee.



Sequoyah.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Helps spread knowledge

In 1823 Sequoyah went to Arkansas to teach his alphabet to the Cherokee who already had moved westward, and he moved with them to Oklahoma in 1828. He became somewhat active in tribal politics and was a Cherokee representative to Washington, D.C., in 1828. With his alphabet a success, Sequoyah devoted much of his time to studying other tribal languages in a search for common elements. His tribe recognized the importance of his contribution when, in 1841, it voted him an allowance, which became an annuity (annual payment) of three hundred dollars.

Early in 1843 Sequoyah became interested in finding the part of the Cherokee nation that had reportedly moved west of the Mississippi River prior to the American Revolution (1775–83; when the American colonies fought for their independence from British rule). His journey led him westward and southward. He died in August 1843, possibly in the state of Tamaulipas in Mexico.

Sequoyah was honored by the state of Oklahoma, which placed a statue of him in Statuary Hall of the National Capitol. Also, a redwood tree, the Sequoia, was named in his honor, as was the Sequoia National Park.

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WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

Born: April 23, 1564

Stratford-upon-Avon, England

Died: April 23, 1616

Stratford-upon-Avon, England

English dramatist and poet

The English playwright, poet, and actor William Shakespeare was a popular dramatist. He was born six years after Queen Elizabeth I (1533–1603) ascended the throne, in the height of the English Renaissance. He found in the theater of London a medium just coming into its own and an audience eager to reward talents of the sort he possessed. He is generally acknowledged to be the greatest of English writers and one of the most extraordinary creators in human history.

Early life

William Shakespeare was born on April 23, 1564, in Stratford-upon-Avon, England. His mother, Mary Arden, was the daughter of a wealthy landowner from a neighboring village. His father, John, was a maker of gloves and a trader in farm produce. John also held a number of responsible positions in Stratford's government and served as mayor in 1569.

Though no personal documents survive from Shakespeare's school years, he probably attended the Stratford grammar school and studied the classics, Latin grammar and literature. It is believed that he had to discontinue his education at about thirteen in order to financially help his father. At eighteen he married Ann Hathaway. They had three children, Susanna, Hamnet, and Judith.

There are no records of Shakespeare's activities between 1585 and 1592. Some have speculated (guessed) that he was a traveling actor or a country schoolmaster. The earliest surviving mention of his career in London, England, is a jealous attack by Robert Greene, a playwright, which indicates that Shakespeare had already established

himself in the capital. It is hard to believe that even Shakespeare could have shown the mastery evident in his plays without several years of apprenticeship (the period of time a person works to learn a skill).

Early comedies

Three early comedies demonstrate that Shakespeare had learned to fuse conventional characters with convincing representations of the human life he knew. Shakespeare's first play is probably *The Comedy of Errors* (1590). Most acknowledge it as a brilliant and intricate farce (a humorous piece of work with a story unlikely to happen in real life) involving two sets of identical twins. The plot of his next comedy, *The Two Gentlemen of Verona* (1591) revolves around a faithful girl who educates her fickle (inconsistent) lover. It has romantic woods, a girl dressed as a boy, sudden changes, music, and happy marriages at the end. The last of the first comedies, *Love's Labour's Lost* (1593), deals with three young men who attempt to withdraw from the world and women for three years to study in their king's school. They quickly surrender to a group of young ladies who come to live nearby.

Early history plays and first tragedy

Though little read and performed today, Shakespeare's first plays in the popular history genre (particular style) are equally ambitious and impressive. *Henry VI* (1592), which is performed in three parts, and *Richard III* (1594) form an epic (story of heroic figures). They deal with the tumultuous (disorderly, agitating) events of English history between the death of Henry V (1387–1422) in 1422 and Henry VII (1457–1509) assuming the



William Shakespeare.

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throne in 1485, which began the period of stability maintained by Queen Elizabeth I (1533–1603). Nothing so ambitious as this monumental sequence had ever before been attempted in an English play.

Shakespeare's first tragedy, *Titus Andronicus* (1593), reveals similar ambition. It is recognized as a brilliant and successful piece in the tradition of the revenge play where someone tries to punish someone for a wrong that was done.

Nondramatic works

The theaters were closed because of plague (a bacteria-caused disease that spreads

quickly and can cause death) during much of 1593 and 1594. At this time Shakespeare wrote two narrative poems for the Earl of Southampton. Both the seriocomic (both happy and sad) *Venus and Adonis* and the tragic *Rape of Lucrece* are based on the Renaissance traditions of myth and symbolism.

Shakespeare's most famous poems are the 154 sonnets. They were probably composed in this period but were not published until 1609. Sonnets are fourteen-line poems with a fixed rhyme scheme. Though they often suggest autobiographical revelation (the discovery or realization in oneself), the sonnets cannot be proved to be any less fictional than the plays.

The Lord Chamberlain's Men

In 1594 Shakespeare became principal writer for the successful Lord Chamberlain's Men in London. This was one of the two leading companies of actors. He also became a regular actor in the company and a partner in the group of artist-managers who ran it. The company performed regularly in unroofed but elaborate theaters that seated up to three thousand people. The actors performed on a huge platform stage equipped with additional levels for performances. The audience sat on three sides or stood on the ground in front of the stage. In 1599 this group had the Globe Theater built on the south bank of the Thames River.

Shakespeare produced many plays for the company. They include the comedies *The Taming of the Shrew* (1594) about the taming of an ill-tempered, scolding woman and *A Midsummer Night's Dream* (1595), in which fairies and magic potions in moonlit woods become entangled with young lovers who

escape from a cruel society. These were followed by *The Merchant of Venice* (1596), *Much Ado about Nothing* (1598), *The Merry Wives of Windsor* (1599), and *As You Like It* (1600).

Shakespeare's tragedies of the period are among his most familiar plays: *Romeo and Juliet* (1596), *Julius Caesar* (1599), and *Hamlet* (1601). Although very different from each other, they share the setting of intense personal tragedy in a large world vividly populated by what seems like the whole range of humanity. Like most of his contemporaries in the theater, Shakespeare used the same techniques in writing comedies as tragedies. Politics are constantly present, and what is best in the protagonist (hero) is what does him in when he finds himself in conflict with the world.

Shakespeare, continuing his interest in the historical play, wrote *King John* (1596). Despite its one strong character it is a relatively weak play. His other epics range from *Richard II* (1595), through the two parts of *Henry IV* (1597), to *Henry V* (1599). These four plays pose disturbing questions about politics, particularly the difference between the man capable of ruling and the man worthy of doing so. They are not optimistic about man as a political animal.

The "problem plays"

Several plays produced at the end of Elizabeth's reign are often grouped as Shakespeare's "problem plays." They are not easily categorized as either tragedies or comedies. *All's Well That Ends Well* (1602) is a romantic comedy with qualities that seem bitter to many critics because it presents romantic relations between men and women in a harsh light. *Troilus and Cressida* (1602), is a bril-

liant, sardonic (skeptically humorous), and disillusioned piece on the Trojan War. *Measure for Measure* (1604) focuses on the link between political power and romantic desire.

King's Men and the late tragedies

Upon ascending to the throne in 1603, King James I (1566–1625) bestowed his patronage upon the Lord Chamberlain's Men, so that the flag of the King's Men now flew over the Globe. During his last decade in the theater Shakespeare was to write fewer but perhaps even finer plays. Almost all the greatest tragedies belong to this period, and they share several qualities. The heroes are dominated by passions that make their moral (having to do with right and wrong) status increasingly ambiguous (not clearly one thing or another) and their freedom increasingly constricted. In the end, what destroys the hero is what is best about him. Like the histories, the late tragedies continue to be felt as intensely relevant to the concerns of modern men.

Othello (1604) is concerned with trust and betrayal. In *King Lear* (1605) an aged king foolishly deprives his only loving daughter of her heritage in order to leave everything to her hypocritical (only pretending to have morals) and vicious sisters. *Macbeth* (1606) concentrates on the problems of evil and freedom. It mingles the supernatural with history, and makes a sympathetic hero of a murderer who sins against family and state.

Antony and Cleopatra and *Coriolanus* (both written in 1607 and 1608) embody Shakespeare's bitterest images of political life. *Antony and Cleopatra* sets the temptation of romantic desire against the call to Roman duty. *Coriolanus* pits a protagonist (hero) who cannot live with hypocrisy (pretending to

believe in something) against a society built on it. Both of these tragedies present ancient history with a vividness (intensity) that makes it seem contemporary.

The romances

A final group of plays takes a turn in a new direction. *Pericles* (1607), *Cymbeline* (1609), *The Winter's Tale* (1611), and *The Tempest* (1611) have a unique power to move and are in the realm of the highest art. *The Tempest* is the most popular and perhaps the finest of the group. In it Prospero and his daughter are shipwrecked on an island inhabited by supernatural creatures. Prospero rules the island with magic, but renounces (gives up) magic at the end. After the composition of *The Tempest* Shakespeare retired to Stratford. He returned to London to compose *Henry VIII* and *The Two Noble Kinsmen* in 1613. Neither seems to have fired his imagination. He died in Stratford-upon-Avon on April 23, 1616, at the age of fifty-two.

Shakespeare's work has continued to seem to each generation like its own most precious discovery. His value to his own age is suggested by the fact that two fellow actors performed the virtually unprecedented (never done before) act in 1623 of gathering his plays together and publishing them in the Folio edition. Without their efforts, since Shakespeare was apparently not interested in publication, many of the plays would not have survived.

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GEORGE BERNARD SHAW

Born: July 26, 1856

Dublin, Ireland

Died: November 2, 1950

Ayot St. Lawrence, England

Irish playwright and critic

British playwright and critic George Bernard Shaw produced more than fifty plays and three volumes of music and drama criticism. Many critics consider him the greatest English dramatist since William Shakespeare (1564–1616).

Early years

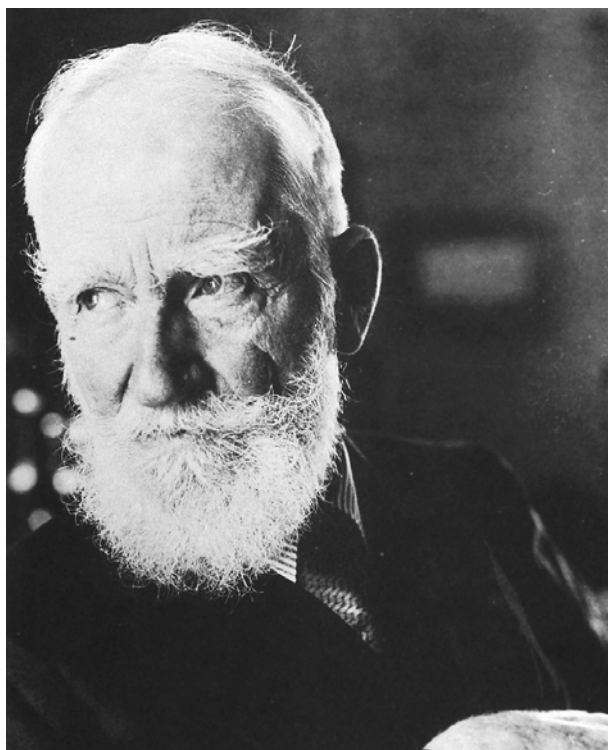
George Bernard Shaw was born in Dublin, Ireland, on July 26, 1856, the son of George Carr Shaw and Lucinda Elizabeth Gurly. His father was the co-owner of a corn mill and had a drinking problem. Shaw was tutored in classics by an uncle, and when he was ten years old, he entered the Wesleyan Connexional School in Dublin. Shaw hated school but loved reading and writing. He also learned a great deal about music and art from his mother, a music teacher and singer.

Shaw took a job as an office boy in 1871 at a monthly salary equal to \$4.50. He resigned in 1876 to join his mother and two sisters in London, England, where they ran a music school. At the age of sixteen Shaw had started writing criticism and reviews for Irish newspapers and magazines; in four years only one piece was accepted. Shaw continued to write criticism while supported by his mother; he also entertained the London society as a singer.

Different kinds of writing

Between 1876 and 1885 Shaw wrote five novels. *Immaturity*, the first, remained unpublished for fifty years, and the other four appeared in various magazines. *An Unsocial Socialist* (1884) was designed as part of a massive projected history of the entire social reform movement in England. *Cashel Byron's Profession* (1882) was produced in 1901 as the drama *The Admirable Bashville; or, Constancy Unrewarded*. *The Irrational Knot* was a description of modern marriage that was similar to Henrik Ibsen's (1828–1906) *A Doll's House*. It appeared in a magazine called *Our Corner*, as did *Love Among the Artists* (1887–88).

In 1879 Shaw had joined a socialist (one who believes in a society in which the means



George Bernard Shaw.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

of production are owned by the people) discussion group, and he joined the socialist Fabian Society in 1884. *Fabian Essays* (1887), edited by Shaw, discussed the importance of economics (the study of the production, distribution, and use of goods and services) and class structure. In 1882 two events completed Shaw's conversion to socialism: he heard a speech by Henry George, the American author of *Progress and Poverty*, and he read Karl Marx's (1818–1883) *Das Kapital*. In 1914 Shaw published *Common Sense about the War*, a criticism of the British government. *The Intelligent Woman's Guide to Capitalism and Socialism*, published in 1928, remains a major volume of socialist thought.

Between 1888 and 1894 Shaw wrote for newspapers and magazines as a music critic. At the end of this period, he began writing regularly for the *Saturday Review*; as a critic, he helped introduce Ibsen to the British public. Shaw's *Quintessence of Ibsenism* appeared in 1890, *The Sanity of Art* in 1895, and *The Perfect Wagnerite* in 1898. He married Charlotte Payne-Townshend, a fellow socialist, in 1898. She died in 1943.

Shaw's plays

Widowers' Houses, Shaw's first play, was produced in 1892. He identified this and his other early plays as "unpleasant." Shaw's first stage successes, *Arms and the Man* and *Candida*, were produced in 1894. *You Never Can Tell*, first produced in 1896 and not often performed, is Shaw's most underrated (not highly valued) comedy. The productions at the Royal Court Theater in London of the works of Shaw, Shakespeare, and Euripides (484–406 B.C.E.) between 1904 and 1907 increased Shaw's popularity; eleven of his plays received 701 performances.

Major Barbara (1905) is a drama of ideas, largely about poverty and capitalism (a system in which prices, production, and distribution of goods are determined by competition in a free market); like most of Shaw's drama, the play poses questions and finally contains messages or arguments. *Androcles and the Lion* (1911) discusses religion. *Heartbreak House* deals with the effects of World War I (1914–18; a war fought between the German-led Central Powers and the Allies: England, the United States, Italy, and other nations) on England; written between 1913 and 1916, it was first produced in 1920. Shaw's plays explored such topics as mar-

riage, parenthood, and education. Most of his plays after *Arms and the Man* begin with long essays that are often not directly related to the drama itself.

Shaw's popular success was coupled with growing critical respect. *Heartbreak House*, *Back to Methuselah* (1921), *Androcles and the Lion*, and *Saint Joan* (1923) are considered his best plays. Shaw was awarded the 1925 Nobel Prize for literature. He continued writing drama until 1947, when he completed *Buoyant Billions* at the age of ninety-one. He died in his home at Ayot St. Lawrence, England, on November 2, 1950.

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MARY
SHELLEY

Born: August 30, 1797
London, England
Died: February 1, 1851
Bournemouth, England
English novelist

English novelist Mary Shelley is best known for writing *Frankenstein, or The Modern Prometheus* (1818) and for her marriage to the poet Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822).

Early years

Mary Wollstonecraft Godwin was born on August 30, 1797, in London, England. She was the only daughter of Mary Wollstonecraft, the early feminist (one who works on behalf of women's rights) and author of *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman*, and William Godwin, the political writer and novelist, both of whom objected to the institution of marriage. Ten days after Mary's birth, Wollstonecraft died from complications, leaving Godwin, a self-absorbed intellectual, to care for both Mary and Fanny Imlay, Wollstonecraft's daughter from an earlier relationship.

Mary's home life improved little when four years later her father married his next-door neighbor, Mary Jane Clairmont, who already had two children of her own. The new Mrs. Godwin favored her own children over the daughters of the celebrated Wollstonecraft, and Mary was often alone and unhappy. She was not formally educated, but she read many of her mother's books and absorbed the intellectual atmosphere created by her father and such visitors as the poet Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772–1834). Young Mary's favorite retreat was Wollstonecraft's grave in the St. Pancras churchyard, where she went to read and write, and eventually, to meet her lover, Percy Shelley (1792–1822).

Life with Shelley

An admirer of Godwin, Percy Shelley visited the author's home and briefly met Mary when she was fourteen, but their attraction did not take hold until a meeting two years later. Shelley, twenty-two, was married, and his wife was expecting their second child, but he and Mary, like Godwin and Wollstonecraft, believed that ties of the heart were more important than legal ones. In July 1814, one month before her seventeenth birthday, Mary ran away with Percy, and they spent the next few years traveling in Switzerland, Germany, and Italy. Percy's father, Sir Timothy Shelley, cut off his son's large allowance after the couple ran away together.

In 1816 Mary's half-sister Fanny committed suicide; weeks later, Percy's wife, Harriet, drowned herself. Mary and Percy were married in London in an unsuccessful attempt to gain custody of his two children by Harriet. Three of their own children died soon after birth, and Mary fell into a deep depression that did not improve even after the birth in 1819 of Percy Florence, her only surviving child. The Shelleys' marriage suffered, too, in the wake of their children's deaths, and Percy formed romantic attachments to other women.

Despite these difficult circumstances, Mary and Percy enjoyed a large group of friends, which included the poet Lord Byron (1788–1824) and the writer Leigh Hunt (1784–1859). They also maintained a schedule of very strict study—including classical and European literature, Greek, Latin, and Italian language, music and art—and other writing. During this period Mary completed *Frankenstein*, the story of a doctor who, while trying to discover the secret of life, steals bod-



Mary Shelley.

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ies from graves in an attempt to create life from the parts—but instead creates a monster.

Critical reaction to *Frankenstein*

While most early reviewers criticized what they considered the gruesome (inspiring horror) elements in *Frankenstein*, many praised the author's imagination and powers of description. In the later nineteenth century and throughout *Frankenstein* criticism, critics have searched for Percy Shelley's influence on the book. Scholars have also debated the value of the additional narratives that he encouraged his wife to write. While some have praised the novel's resulting three-part

structure, others have argued that these additions take away from and merely pad the story. Many have also noted the influence of Shelley's father's social views in the book; in addition, some critics claim to have found links to his fiction.

Mary Shelley's journal entries reveal that during 1816 and 1817, when *Frankenstein* was being written, she and her husband discussed the work many times. It is also known that in these years she and Shelley both read John Milton's (1608–1674) *Paradise Lost*, and that she was interested at this same time in Godwin's *Political Justice*, Thomas Paine's (1737–1809) *The Rights of Man*, and Aeschylus's (525–456 B.C.E.) *Prometheus Bound*. This is not to say that Mary Shelley borrowed her social and moral ideas from Paine, or from Shelley or Godwin. It is perfectly understandable that she shared the social thoughts of her father and her husband and that she wove these ideas, which were shared also by many of the enlightened English public during those years, into a pattern of her own making.

Life as a widow

The Shelleys were settled near Lenci, Italy, in 1822 when Percy Shelley drowned during a storm while sailing to meet Leigh Hunt and his wife. After a year in Italy, Mary returned to England for good with her son. After Percy's death Mary struggled to support herself and her child. Sir Timothy Shelley offered her some support, but he ordered that she keep the Shelley name out of print; thus, all her works were published without her name on them. Mary contributed a series of biographical and critical sketches to *Chamber's Cabinet Cyclopaedia* and published several short stories.

Mary Shelley also produced five more novels, which received negative criticism for being too wordy and having awkward plots. *The Last Man* (1826) is her best-known work after *Frankenstein*. This novel, in which she describes the destruction of the human race in the twenty-first century, is noted as an inventive description of the future and an early form of science fiction. *Valperga* (1823) and *The Fortunes of Perkin Warbeck* (1830) are historical novels that have received little attention from book critics, while *Lodore* (1835) and *Falkner* (1837), thought by many to be autobiographical (based on her own life), are often examined for clues to the lives of the Shelleys and their circle.

The Shelleys' situation improved when Sir Timothy increased Percy Florence's allowance with his coming of age in 1840, which allowed mother and son to travel in Italy and Germany; their journeys are recounted in *Rambles in Germany and Italy in 1840, 1842, and 1843* (1844). Too ill in her last few years to complete her most cherished project, a biography of her husband, Mary Shelley died at age fifty-three.

Mary Shelley's stories were collected and published after her death, as was *Mathilda*, a short novel that appeared for the first time in the 1950s. The story of a father and daughter's attraction, it has been viewed as a fictional treatment of her relationship with Godwin. The verse dramas *Proserpine* and *Midas* (1922) were written to accompany one of Percy Shelley's works and have earned mild praise for their poetry. Critics also admire Mary Shelley's nonfiction, including the readable, though now dated, travel volumes; the vigorous essays for *Chamber's Cabinet Cyclopaedia*; and her notes on her husband's poetry.

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PERCY SHELLEY

Born: September 4, 1792

Field Place, Sussex, England

Died: July 8, 1822

Viareggio, Italy

English poet

The English romantic poet Percy Shelley ranks as one of the greatest lyric poets in the history of English literature.

Early years

Percy Bysshe Shelley was born at Field Place near Horsham, Sussex, England, on August 4, 1792. He was the first son of a wealthy, country landowner. As a boy, Shelley felt harassed by his father. This abuse may have first sparked the flame of protest which, during his school days at Eton from 1804 until 1810, earned him the name of "Mad Shelley." At school, however, he proved himself to be a very capable and intelligent stu-



Percy Shelley.

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dent. He also began writing some short fiction pieces.

In the course of his first and only year at Oxford University, in England (1810–1811), Shelley and a friend Thomas Jefferson Hogg issued a pamphlet provocatively entitled “The Necessity of Atheism (the belief that there is no God).” Both students were expelled from the university. This event intensified Shelley’s rebelliousness against accepted notions of law and order, both in his private life and in government. In the summer of 1811 Shelley met and married Harriet Westbrook.

Shelley’s first poems

Shelley attempted to communicate his views on politics other topics in the poem “Queen Mab” (1813). Though an immature poem, nevertheless, it contained the germ of his mature philosophy: that throughout the cosmos there is “widely diffused / A spirit of activity and life,” an omnipresent (being everywhere) energy that, unless misguided by people’s lust for power, can lead humankind to paradise.

By the summer of 1814 Shelley had become closely involved with Mary Godwin (1797–1851). In late July Shelley left his wife and ran away to continental Europe with Godwin. In 1816, they married. The same year, Mary Shelley wrote *Frankenstein*.

“Alastor”

When Shelley returned to England, he was increasingly driven to the realization that paradise was not just around the corner. This may have prompted the writing of “Alastor, or the Spirit of Solitude” in December 1815. In this poem Shelley writes that poets are caught between the enticements of extreme idealism (visions for the improvement of humankind) and the awareness that the very nature of humans and the world prevents the achievement of this highest purpose.

Both Shelley’s “Hymn to Intellectual Beauty” and “Mont Blanc,” were planned in 1816, during a stay in Geneva, Switzerland, and make an impressive statement of his belief in an everlasting, compassionate “Spirit,” the hidden source of splendor and harmony in nature and of moral activity in humans.

“The Revolt of Islam”

The winter of 1816 and 1817 was a period of great emotional disturbance for Shelley. Harriet, his wife, died, presumably by suicide, in December. The courts refused to grant Shelley the custody of their two children. In addition, he was beginning to worry about his health. However, there were encouragements as well. Shelley was gaining some recognition as an original and powerful poet.

During the spring and summer of 1817, Shelley composed his most ambitious poem to that date, “The Revolt of Islam.” In this work the theme of love between man and woman was skillfully woven into the wider pattern of humankind’s love-inspired struggle for brotherhood. The work demonstrates that Shelley had now come to a mature insight into the complex relationship between good and evil. A person’s recognition of his or her boundaries is the first step to wisdom and inner liberty. Martyrdom does not put an end to hope, for it is a victory of the spirit and a vital source of inspiration.

“Exile” and “Prometheus Unbound”

In March 1818 Percy and Mary Shelley left England, never to return. The bulk of the poet’s output was produced in Italy in the course of the last four years of his short life. Though life in Italy had its obvious rewards, this period was by no means one of pure happiness for Shelley. He was increasingly anxious about his health. He was beginning to resent the social ostracism (shunning) that had made him an exile. The exile itself was at times hard to bear, even though the political and social situations in England were most unattractive. Finally, his son William died in June 1819. A note of despair can be perceived in some of his minor poems, such as the

“Stanzas Written in Dejection near Naples.” In “Prometheus Unbound” (1818–19), Shelley turned to myths (ancient stories that explain natural occurrences) to convey, in a more sensitive and complex way, the basic truth that had been expressed through the narrative technique of “The Revolt of Islam.”

Drama and social tracts

Like the other romantic poets, Shelley was aware of the limitations of poetry as a medium of mass communication. He, too, struggled to deliver his message to a larger audience. He experimented with stage drama in *The Cenci* (1819) a tragedy which illustrates the problems caused by humans’ lust for power, both physical and mental, in the sphere of domestic life.

Shelley’s interest, however, lay in wider issues, which he now began to tackle in satires (humorous pieces pointing out people’s weaknesses). He vented his social outrage in the stirring argument of *The Masque of Anarchy* (1819); in *Peter Bell the Third* (1819), a satire of the poet William Wordsworth (1770–1850); and in *Oedipus Tyrannus, or Swell-Foot the Tyrant* (1820), a mock tragedy on the royal British family.

In “Hellas” (1821), Shelley’s major political poem, Hellas celebrates the Greek war of liberation. It crowns a large series of minor poems in which Shelley, throughout his writing career, had hailed the spirit of liberty, not only among the oppressed classes of England but also among the oppressed nations of the world.

Final poems and prose works

Shelley’s concern with promoting the cause of freedom was genuine, but his per-

sonality found a more compatible outlet in his “visionary rhymes.” In his poems the almost mystical concepts of oneness and love, of poetry and brotherhood are expressed. Such themes remained the source of his inspiration to the last. As he was nearing his thirtieth year, he wrote with a more urgent yet less harsh sense of the unbridgeable gap between the ideal and the real. He movingly expressed this sense in “The Sensitive Plant” (1820) and in the poem that he composed on the death of John Keats (1795–1821), “Adonais” (1821).

Shelley’s *The Defence of Poetry* (1821) is one of the most eloquent prose assessments of the poet’s unique relation to the eternal. And, in 1822, he focused on the poet’s relation to earthly experience in *The Triumph of Life*. This work contains an impassioned condemnation of the corruption wrought by worldly life, whose “icy-cold stare” irresistibly obscures the “living flame” of imagination.

Shelley drowned in the Gulf of Spezia near Lerici, Italy, on July 8, 1822, shortly before his thirtieth birthday. He is regarded as one of the greatest English poets of the romantic age of art.

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BEVERLY SILLS

Born: May 25, 1929

Brooklyn, New York

American singer

Beverly Silles was a child performer, coloratura soprano (a light voice used in a very ornate type of singing), and operatic (in operas) superstar who retired from her performance career in 1980 to become general director of the New York City Opera Company.

Early years

Beverly Silles was born Belle Miriam Silverman in Brooklyn, New York, on May 25, 1929, during the era of Shirley Temple (1928–) and other child stars of the movies. Her father was an insurance salesman who wanted his daughter to become a teacher. Her mother had different plans, however. Silles was singing on the radio by age three. At the age of four she was a regular on a children’s Saturday morning radio program. At seven she sang in a movie and had already memorized twenty-two opera arias (solos). She continued to perform on radio shows and did laundry soap commercials, which got her the nickname “Bubbles.” She left

radio work at age twelve to pursue her love of opera.

After Sills graduated from grammar school she attended the Professional Children's School in New York City. By the time she was nineteen she had memorized between fifty and sixty operas. She studied voice privately with her lifelong associate Estelle Liebling and eventually achieved professional competence on the piano as well, studying with Paolo Gallico.

Billed as "the youngest prima donna in captivity," Sills joined a Gilbert and Sullivan touring company in 1945. Two years later she sang her first operatic role with the Philadelphia (Pennsylvania) Opera Company. She toured with several different small opera companies starting in 1948.

Sills made her debut with the New York City Opera on October 29, 1955, singing Rosalinde in *Die Fledermaus*. The critics loved her and predicted great success for her career. Eventually she would command a vast repertoire of one hundred roles, actively performing sixty of them in one hundred opera or concert appearances each year at the peak of her career. Her great memory allowed her not only to master her own enormous repertoire of roles but also to understand the other principal roles in the operas she performed. This ability earned her a reputation not only as a singer on the stage but as an actress as well.

Family life

In 1956 Sills married Peter Bulkeley Greenough, associate editor of the Cleveland *Plain Dealer*. She and her husband had two children. Their daughter was born hearing impaired and their son was developmentally



Beverly Sills.

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disabled. Their son had to be institutionalized (put in a hospital) when he was six due to the great amount of care he required. Sills carried two watches, one set to her son's schedule in the time zone where he lived, so that she could always know what he was doing. The tragedies with her children would lead Sills into philanthropic (helping others through work and donations) work later in her career.

Metropolitan Opera and Europe

On July 8, 1966, Sills sang Donna Anna in *Don Giovanni* with the Metropolitan Opera,

but her formal debut with the Metropolitan Opera did not actually occur until 1975. Sills was able to rise to the top of her profession before touring Europe. She finally did so in 1967, a guest of the Vienna State Opera. She went on to sing in Buenos Aires, Argentina; La Scala in Milan, Italy; and Covent Garden, London, England. She also performed in Naples, Italy; Berlin, Germany; and Paris, France.

On October 27, 1980, Sills gave her last performance. Opera critics said it was overdue, as her voice had been deteriorating (weakening) for some time due, in part, to health problems. The very next day she assumed the general directorship of the New York City Opera. She displayed great management skill and public relations talent, appearing on popular television programs and in other ways representing opera to a wide audience. She helped pull the New York City Opera out of both financial and public crises.

Sills wrote three autobiographies. She received honorary doctoral degrees from Harvard University, New York University, Temple University, the New England Conservatory, and the California Institute of the Arts. In 1973 she was awarded the Handel Medallion, New York City's highest cultural award.

In 1972 Sills added philanthropy to her list of careers, becoming the national chairman of the Mothers' March on Birth Defects. She continues to be a highly visible active public figure, promoting both operatic and philanthropic causes.

Retirement

In 1989 Sills formally retired and remained in quiet seclusion with her hus-

band for about five years. In 1994 she returned to public life as the chairwoman of the Lincoln Center for the Performing Arts. At this point in her life Sills says "I've done everything I set out to do . . . sung in every opera house I wanted to . . . to go on past the point where I should, I think would break my heart. I think my voice has served me very well."

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NEIL SIMON

Born: July 4, 1927

New York, New York

American playwright and writer

Pulitzer Prize-winning playwright Neil Simon is one of America's most productive and popular dramatists. His plays expose human weaknesses and make people laugh at themselves.

Early years

Marvin Neil Simon was born in the Bronx, in New York, on the Fourth of July in 1927. His father Irving, a garment salesman, disap-

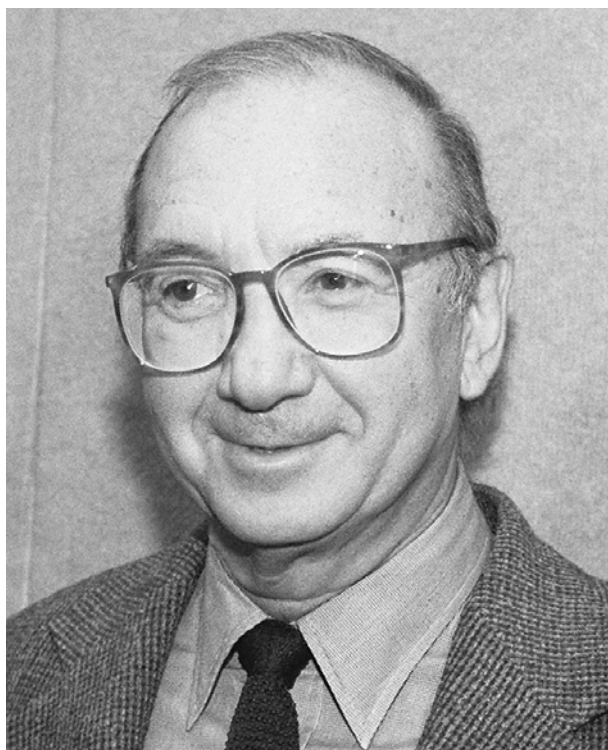
peared from time to time, leaving his wife, Mamie, to support their two sons by working at a department store and by relying on family and friends. After his parents divorced, Simon lived with relatives in Forest Hills, New York. Simon received the nickname “Doc” as a child because he was always pretending to be a doctor, listening to people’s heartbeats with a toy stethoscope (an instrument used to listen to sounds inside the body). He also loved comedy films and was often thrown out of movie theaters for laughing too loudly.

Simon and his older brother Danny were very close. During their teens, they wrote and sold material to standup comedians and radio shows. It was his brother who encouraged him to pursue writing while in the United States Army Air Force Reserve program. Simon also attended college at this time. His childhood love of comedy stuck, and his writing was inspired by the work of his favorite comics—Robert Benchley (1889–1945) and Ring Lardner (1885–1933).

Writing for a living

After being discharged (let out) from the army, Simon got a job in Warner Brothers’ mailroom—thanks to his brother, who worked in the publicity department. They began working together again, and from 1947 to 1956 they wrote comedy for television shows starring Jackie Gleason (1916–1987) and Phil Silvers (1911–1985). Simon continued writing comedy after his brother quit to become a television director, and his work appeared on some of television’s top shows. The pleasure was fading, however, so he began writing plays in 1960.

Simon’s first play, *Come Blow Your Horn*, was a modest hit. It was followed shortly



Neil Simon.

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thereafter with *Barefoot in the Park*, which ran on Broadway for four years. His third play, *The Odd Couple*, introduced two famous characters, Felix and Oscar, two men with failing marriages who move in together to save money and find that they have the same problems living with each other as they did with their wives. Simon’s storylines usually presented conflicts between two people and were filled with funny one-liners.

Simon admitted that he often used personal experiences or those of his friends for material. *Come Blow Your Horn* was about two brothers who moved away from home and

shared an apartment (just as Simon and his brother had); *Barefoot in the Park* was the story of newlyweds adjusting to married life (similar to his own marriage); and of *The Odd Couple* Simon once commented, “[The story] happened to two guys I know—I couldn’t write a play about Welsh miners.” *The Odd Couple* had a two-year run on Broadway, won Simon his first Tony Award (an award given every year for achievement in the theater), and was adapted to television and film several times.

New approach to drama

In the 1970s Simon made an effort to add depth to his work by treating serious issues with comic touches. He presented works such as *The Last of the Red Hot Lovers*, the story of a married man in a mid-life crisis who has a series of affairs; *The Gingerbread Lady*, in which a one-time singer, who is now an alcoholic, struggles to make a comeback; and *The Prisoner of Second Avenue*, which witnesses the nervous breakdown of a recently fired business executive.

Simon continued to create characters who struggled to handle their feelings in difficult situations and who released tension with humor. He began to share more of himself and his life, including boyhood dreams of escaping from his family problems and the difficulty of coping with his wife’s terminal illness. During this period he wrote *The Sunshine Boys*, *The Good Doctor*, *California Suite*, and *Chapter Two*, whose main character, a widower, feels guilty over falling in love and remarrying, much as Simon had. He also wrote several screenplays, including *The Goodbye Girl*, which was nominated (put forward for consideration) for an Academy Award in 1977.

Even more personal works

Simon took his mixing of honesty and humor to new levels in the 1980s. *Brighton Beach Memoirs*, the first in a trilogy (series of three works) of semiautobiographical (somewhat based on his own life) plays, tells the story of a middle-class Jewish American teenager growing up in a troubled family. *Biloxi Blues* deals with the boy’s coming of age and facing of anti-Semitism (hatred of Jewish people) while in the army. Finally, *Broadway Bound* takes audiences into the boy’s young adulthood, as he struggles to establish his career and sees the problems in his parents’ relationship more clearly. Simon claimed that writing the play helped him address the problems he had with his own mother.

When Simon’s third marriage broke up, he wrote *Jake’s Women*, in which he introduces “ghosts”—good and bad experiences of two marriages and their effect on the third. He began the 1990s with *Lost in Yonkers*, a painfully funny story about the effect an abusive mother has on her grown children. The play was a success, and in 1991 it earned the Pulitzer Prize for drama.

Later years

Simon’s next work, *Laughter on the 23rd Floor*, is a behind-the-scenes look at writing comedy by committee, as a group of men shout one-liners, each trying to top the other. Critics found it funny but talked about the lack of plot and depth of the characters. Simon received Kennedy Center honors in 1995 from President Bill Clinton (1946–) for his contribution to the arts and to popular culture in the twentieth century. In 1996 Simon wrote a book entitled *Rewrites*, a look back at his early career. The book received mixed reviews; *Peo-*

ple Weekly commented that it “doesn’t live up to the creativity it documents.”

In 1997 Simon introduced his first major black character in *Proposals*. In an interview with David Stearns for *USA Today* he said, “It is one of the most loving plays I’ve ever written. There’s also a lot of anger. Because love is the main theme in the play, I was trying to cover all the aspects [elements] of it—those who get it and those who don’t.” In 1999 Simon was honored by ringing the bell to open trading at the New York Stock Exchange as part of the Exchange’s Bridging the Millennium program, which honored leaders of the twentieth century whose achievements continue to enrich humanity.

In 2001, just about the same time his new play *45 Seconds from Broadway* was opening, Simon was presented with the first Sarah Applebaum Nederlander Award for Excellence in Theatre at Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan. As President Clinton remarked of Simon when presenting him with the Kennedy Center honors, “He challenges us and himself never to take ourselves too seriously. Thank you for the wit and the wisdom.”

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FRANK SINATRA

Born: December 12, 1915

Hoboken, New Jersey

Died: May 14, 1998

Los Angeles, California

American singer, actor, and performer

Frank Sinatra is one of the most popular singers in American history. As an actor, he appeared in fifty-eight films and won an Academy Award for his role in *From Here to Eternity*. His career started in the 1930s and continued into the 1990s.

Early years

Francis Albert Sinatra was born in Hoboken, New Jersey, on December 12, 1915, the only child of Italian immigrants Martin and Natalie “Dolly” Sinatra. His father was a firefighter for the city of Hoboken and his mother was an amateur singer who often sang at social events. Sinatra lived in a mainly Italian American working-class neighborhood. His first experience with music came when his uncle gave him a ukulele, and on hot summer nights he loved to go outside and sing while playing the instrument. His other interest was boxing. To protect himself in the tough neighborhood he grew up in, he became a competent boxer. In high school he was a generous but pugnacious (likely to fight) individual—the traits he would carry with him throughout his life.

Early in his life Sinatra knew he wanted to become a singer. His influences were Rudy Vallee (1901–1986) and Bing Crosby (1903–1977). He dropped out of high school and began to sing at small clubs. He got his first



Frank Sinatra.

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big break on the radio talent show *Major Bowes and his Amateur Hour* in 1935, singing in a group called the Hoboken Four. At this time Sinatra sang in various New Jersey nightclubs, hoping to attract the attention of "Swing Era" bandleaders. In 1939, he began working on radio station WNEW in New York City with bandleader Harry James for \$75 per week. That same year he married his longtime sweetheart, Nancy Barbato. They would eventually have three children.

The beginning of success

After seven months with Harry James, Sinatra joined Tommy Dorsey and his orches-

tra, causing his career to skyrocket. Dorsey's orchestra was one of the most popular in the land, and it remained so with Sinatra singing with it from 1940 through 1942.

During that time, Sinatra performed with the band in his first two movies—*Las Vegas Nights* (1941) and *Ship Ahoy* (1942). He began his solo career at the end of 1942 and continued his meteoric (speedy and brilliant) rise.

Fans

The Swing Era lasted from 1935 through the end of World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis Powers—Italy, Japan, and Germany—and the Allies—France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States). Sinatra was by far the Swing Era's best-known vocalist. His musical roots combined Tin Pan Alley (the song writing center of New York City) and Italian opera. Most important to him throughout his career would be his insistence on his own style and arrangements for whatever music he sang, thus producing his own unique phrasing of lyrics and melody lines.

Though Sinatra was exempted from military service in World War II because of a damaged eardrum, he helped the war effort with his appearances in movies and benefits for soldiers. He was also an outspoken supporter of Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945) and liberal viewpoints, including racial and religious tolerance. He made many appearances to support charities.

Sinatra's wide-shouldered suits and his bow ties were imitated by many men, but his most ardent followers were teenaged girls, nicknamed "bobby-soxers" for the ankle-high socks they wore. His widespread appeal

was further fueled by America's explosive mass media growth in newspapers, magazines, films, record players, and radio stations. Sinatra was the first singer to attract the kind of near hysteria that would later accompany live appearances by Elvis Presley (1935–1977) and the Beatles.

This type of excitement reached its peak in the Columbus Day riot of October 12, 1944. Thousands of his fans (mostly female) were denied entry into the already-packed Paramount Theater in New York City. They stormed the streets and vented their frustration by smashing nearby shop windows.

The 1950s

There were rumors that Sinatra was connected to the Mafia (organized crime). These stories arose mostly from his socializing with alleged Mafia kingpins (chiefs). He also received bad publicity about his noted bar-room brawls (fights) with customers and reporters. The allegations of underworld activity were never proven, and no criminal charges were ever made.

In 1954 Sinatra appeared in the critically acclaimed film *From Here to Eternity* (1954). The role won him an Academy Award for best supporting actor. He appeared in nine films in just two years, including *Guys and Dolls* (1955), *Young At Heart* (1955), *The Tender Trap* (1955), *The Man With the Golden Arm* (1955), and *High Society* (1956). Sinatra was back on the record charts as well with “Young at Heart.” Nelson Riddle became his musical arranger in the 1950s, and he helped Sinatra stay on the record charts throughout the rest of the decade. (In fact, Sinatra stayed on the charts steadily through 1967, in spite of rock and roll.) Sinatra did not just record singles.

He recorded albums around a central theme with a large collection of songs or ballads. From 1957 through 1966 he had twenty-seven Top Ten albums without producing one Top Ten single.

Sinatra's bobby-soxer fans were now adults and Sinatra had shifted smoothly to the role of the aging romantic bachelor. This was signified by the image of him leaning alone against a lamppost with a raincoat slung over one shoulder.

The 1960s

Sinatra's hits in the 1960s included “It Was a Very Good Year” and “Strangers in the Night” (1966). He reached the top of the singles charts in a duet, “Somethin’ Stupid,” with his daughter Nancy in 1967.

Sinatra continued to act in several movies in the 1960s, including *Ocean's 11* (1960), *The Manchurian Candidate* (1962), *Robin and the Seven Hoods* (1964), and *Tony Rome* (1967). Many critics felt several of these films had declined in artistic merit. Sinatra became known as part of a group of friends called the “Rat Pack.” It included entertainers Dean Martin (1917–1995), Sammy Davis Jr. (1925–1990), Joey Bishop, and Peter Lawford.

“My Way”

After Sinatra's famous recording of “My Way” (1969), he made an ill-fated attempt to sing some of the lighter tunes of modern rock composers. This led to a brief retirement from entertainment (1971 through 1973). At this time he also shifted his politics from liberal to conservative. He had become a close friend of Ronald Reagan (1911–), helping him in his later successful presidential campaigns.

Sinatra's financial empire produced millions of dollars in earnings from investments in films, records, gambling casinos, real estate, missile parts, and general aviation. He came out of his retirement in 1974 with a renewed interest in older tunes. His return to the limelight was highlighted by his famous recording of "New York, New York" (1980) as he entered his sixth decade of entertaining.

In 1988 Sinatra, Sammy Davis Jr., and Dean Martin embarked on a cross-country tour. The tour lasted only one week. Sinatra later organized another reunion tour with Shirley MacLaine (1934–) in 1992 and it was an undeniable success.

By 1994 Sinatra was experiencing memory lapses, but that did not keep him from performing publicly. He merely added the use of a prompter (device that shows the words of a song) to remind him of the lyrics. After celebrating his eightieth birthday at a public tribute, new packages of recordings were released and became instant best-sellers. But Sinatra's health continued to deteriorate in the 1990s. On the evening of May 14, 1998, Sinatra died of a heart attack in Los Angeles, California.

The audiences who grew up with him and his music were complemented by adoration from younger generations. They have all made "Old Blue Eyes" one of the most outstanding popular singers of the twentieth century.

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UPTON SINCLAIR

Born: September 20, 1878

Baltimore, Maryland

Died: November 25, 1968

Bound Brook, New Jersey

American writer

Upton Sinclair, American novelist and political writer, was one of the most important muckrakers (writers who search out and reveal improper conduct in politics and business) of the 1900s. His novel *The Jungle* helped improve working conditions in the meat-packing industry.

Early life and education

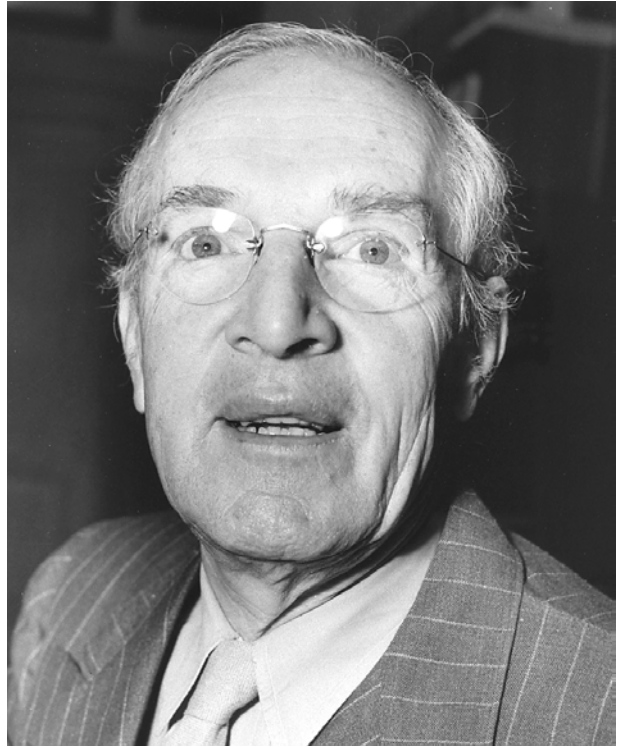
Upton Beale Sinclair Jr. was born in Baltimore, Maryland, on September 20, 1878. He was the only child of Upton Beall Sinclair and Priscilla Harden. His father worked at different times selling liquor, hats, and men's clothes. He also struggled with poverty and a drinking problem. Young Upton was a shy, thoughtful boy who taught himself to read at age five. The family moved to New York City when Upton was ten, and at fourteen he entered New York City College. He graduated in 1897 and

went to Columbia University to study law, but instead became more interested in politics and literature. He never earned a law degree. Through these years he supported himself by writing for adventure-story magazines. While attending Columbia he wrote eight thousand words a day. He also continued to read a great deal—over one two-week Christmas break he read all of William Shakespeare's (1564–1616) works as well as all of John Milton's (1608–1674) poetry.

Becomes involved in politics

Sinclair moved to Quebec, Canada, in 1900. That same year he married Meta Fuller, with whom he had a son. His first novel, *Springtime and Harvest* (1901), was a modest success. Three more novels in the next four years failed to provide even a bare living. Sinclair became a member of the Socialist Party in 1902, and he was a Socialist candidate for Congress from New Jersey in 1906. (Socialists believe in a system in which there is no private property and all people own the means of production, such as factories and farms, as a group.)

Also in 1906 Sinclair's *The Jungle*, a novel exposing unfair labor practices and unsanitary conditions in the meat-packing factories of Chicago, Illinois, was a huge success. Sinclair had spent seven weeks observing the operations of a meat-packing plant before writing the book. *The Jungle's* protest about the problems of laborers and the socialist solutions it proposed caused a public outcry. President Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) invited Sinclair to discuss packing-house conditions, and a congressional investigation led to the passage of the Pure Food and Drug Act.



Upton Sinclair.

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Documents personal life

Sinclair divorced his first wife in 1913. The autobiographical (based on his own life) novel *Love's Pilgrimage* (1911) treats his marriage and the birth of his child with an honesty that shocked some reviewers. Sinclair married Mary Craig Kimbrough in 1913. *Sylvia and Sylvia's Marriage*, a massive two-part story, called for sexual enlightenment (freedom from ignorance and misinformation).

King Coal (1917), based on a coal strike of 1914 and 1915, returned to labor protest and socialistic comment. However, in 1917

Sinclair left the Socialist Party to support President Woodrow Wilson (1856–1924). He returned to the socialist camp when Wilson supported intervention in the Soviet Union. In California Sinclair ran on the Socialist ticket for Congress (1920), for the Senate (1922), and for governor (1926 and 1930).

Continues stirring things up

Sinclair continued his writings on political and reform issues. *Oil!* (1927) dealt with dishonesty in President Warren G. Harding's (1865–1923) administration. *Boston* (1928), a novel about the Sacco-Vanzetti case (in which two Italian men, believed by many to have been innocent, were convicted and executed for having committed a murder during a payroll robbery), brought to light much new material and demonstrated the constructive research that always lay beneath Sinclair's protest writings.

In 1933 Sinclair was persuaded to campaign seriously for governor of California. He called his program "End Poverty in California." His sensible presentation of Socialist ideas won him the Democratic nomination, but millions of dollars and a campaign based on lies and fear defeated him in the election.

World's End (1940) launched Sinclair's eleven-volume novel series that attempted to give an insider's view of the U.S. government between 1913 and 1949. One of the novels, *Dragon's Teeth* (1942), a study of the rise of Nazism (a German political movement of the 1930s whose followers scorned democracy and favored the destruction of all "inferior" non-Germans, especially Jewish people), won the Pulitzer Prize. Before his death on

November 25, 1968, Sinclair had produced more than ninety books that earned at least \$1 million, most of it contributed to socialist and reform causes.

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ISAAC BASHEVIS SINGER

Born: July 14, 1904

Radzymin, Poland

Died: July 24, 1991

Miami, Florida

Polish-born American author

Isaac Bashevis Singer, a Polish-American author, was admired for his recreation of the forgotten world of nineteenth-century Poland and his depiction of a timeless Jewish ghetto (a city neighborhood where a minority group lives).

Early life

Isaac Bashevis Singer was born on July 14, 1904, in Radzymin, Poland. His family

moved to Warsaw, Poland, when he was four years old. Both of his grandfathers were rabbis (Jewish spiritual leaders), and Singer was also groomed for Hasidism, a strict spiritual practice, and attended a seminary (a school to train rabbis). However, he decided on a writing career. His older brother, Israel Joseph, was a well-known Yiddish (a language spoken by Jewish people in eastern Europe) writer. Growing up, Singer was impressed by the Jewish folk tales told by his parents. These tales set the groundwork for some of Singer's fictional characters and religious faith.

After Singer completed his seminary studies, he worked as a journalist for the Yiddish press in various parts of Poland. Moving to the United States in 1935, Singer became a reporter for the *Daily Forward* in New York City, America's largest Yiddish newspaper. Although he personally adapted to his new habitat, his early literary efforts display an appreciation for the "old country." The subjects seem part of a distant past remembered from vivid tales of Polish storytellers.

First works

Singer's first novel, *The Family Moskat* (1950), was likened by critics to the narratives of the Russian writer Ivan Turgenev (1818–1883) and the French writer Honoré de Balzac (1799–1850). Based on Singer's own family, the novel succeeds in translating the reality of an orthodox (traditional) Jewish home into a universal reality. Two short stories, "Satan in Goray" and "The Dybbuk and the Golem" (1955), treat the superstition and foolishness of eastern European peasants (people from the lower,



Isaac Bashevis Singer.

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working class). A collection of short narratives, *Gimpel, the Fool, and Other Stories* (1957), reworked earlier themes but skillfully avoided repetition. Beneath the grotesque and folk elements, Singer included in "Gimpel" a psychological-theological (religious) moral conflict in which an uncomplicated man finds his existence threatened by black magic and sorcery (powers from evil spirits).

Modern man is the subject of Singer's novel *The Magician of Lublin* (1960), which portrays a protagonist (main character) who dares to violate the holiness of tradition. The

novel lacks the superb intricacy of *The Family Moskat* and the haunting suspense of "Gimpel." Still grappling with the modern experience in his next work, Singer set the eleven short pieces of *The Spinoza of Market Street* (1961) in a ghetto after World War II (1939–45; a war in which the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union fought against Germany, Japan, and Italy). Having departed from his quaintly unsophisticated world into contemporary urban madness, Singer revealed the stylistic limitations of his simple, flowing writings. "I've always stayed in my same nook, my same corner," Singer once reflected. "If a writer ventures out of his corner he is nothing."

Later work

Singer's *The Slave* (1962), an epic about seventeenth-century Poland, recounts the brutal world of Russian Cossacks (peasant soldiers in the Ukraine) through the eyes of an enslaved, sensitive Jew; yet somehow the work appeals to modern sensibilities. Once again Singer's flawless writing recaptures a timeless folk element. When a collection of scenes filled with memories of Singer's childhood in the Warsaw ghetto (an extremely poor neighborhood), *A Day of Pleasure: Stories of a Boy Growing Up in Warsaw* (1969), won the National Book Award for children's literature, Singer remarked that he wrote for young people because "they still believe in God, the family, angels, devils, witches, goblins, and other such obsolete stuff." *A Friend of Kafka*, a collection of short fiction, appeared in 1970.

Recipient of numerous other literary awards, Singer remained an active journalist

and critic for the *Daily Forward*. He always wrote in Yiddish and then worked closely with his English translators (people who change text from one language to another) because of the difficulty in finding equivalents for his subtle writings. His "simple" and "unchanging" fictions have gained in popularity with a new generation possessing a taste for an obscure and sometimes grotesque past which seems more real than an unclear future, for his stories capture the essence of the human condition.

Singer received numerous awards throughout the latter portion of his life. Some of the more noted include Nobel Prize in literature (1978) and the Gold Medal for Fiction (1989). Singer continued to publish new material until his death in 1991.

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BESSIE SMITH

Born: April 15, 1894

Chattanooga, Tennessee

Died: September 26, 1937

Clarksdale, Mississippi

African American singer

The African American singer Bessie Smith was called “The Empress of the Blues.” Her magnificent voice, sense of the dramatic, clarity of diction (one never missed a word of what she sang), and incomparable time and phrasing set her apart from the competition and made her appeal as much to jazz lovers as to blues lovers.

Early years

Bessie Smith was born into poverty in Chattanooga, Tennessee, one of seven children of William and Laura Smith. Her father was a Baptist minister and a laborer. Her father died soon after her birth and her mother and two of her brothers died by the time she was eight or nine. An unmarried aunt raised her and her siblings. Smith realized that she had an unusual voice and sang for money on street corners at an early age, accompanied on guitar by Andrew, her younger brother.

At age eighteen Bessie worked with the Moses Stokes traveling minstrel show, and later with the Rabbit Foot Minstrels under Gertrude “Ma” Rainey. The minstrel show (a show based on African American music and humor) circuit was a difficult life. Late hours, low pay, gambling, fighting, and abusing alcohol and drugs were commonplace. But

Smith’s voice was remarkable, filling the largest hall without amplification (the expansion of sound) and reaching out to each listener in beautiful, earthy tones.

In 1920 Mamie Smith (no relation to Bessie Smith) recorded the first vocal blues record and sold one hundred thousand copies in the first month. Record executives realized they had a new market and the “race record” was born. These records were shipped only to the South and selected areas of the North where African American people congregated. Bessie Smith produced “Down-Hearted Blues” and “Gulf Coast Blues” in February 1923. An astounding 780 thousand copies sold within six months.

Recorded with the jazz elite

In 1923 Smith’s big break came when she was discovered by Columbia Records. Frank Walker handled her recording contract from 1923 through 1931 and helped launch her successful career of 160 titles.

Smith purchased a custom-designed railroad car for herself and her troupe in 1925. This allowed her to bypass some of the dispiriting (negative) effects of the racism found in both northern and southern states. She traveled with her own tent show or with the Theater Owners’ Booking Association (TOBA) shows, commanding a weekly salary that peaked at two thousand dollars.

Smith recorded with a variety of accompanists during her ten-year recording career. They included pianists Fred Longshaw, Porter Grainger, and Fletcher Henderson; saxophonists Coleman Hawkins and Sidney Bechet; trombonist Charlie Green; clarinetists Buster Bailey and Don Redman; and cornetist



Bessie Smith.

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Joe Smith. With Louis Armstrong (1900–1971) she recorded “St. Louis Blues,” “Cold in Hand Blues,” “Careless Love Blues,” “Nashville Woman’s Blues,” and “I Ain’t Gonna Play No Second Fiddle.”

Singing the blues

As the popularity of Smith’s records grew, her touring schedule grew. As she traveled from her home base of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, throughout the United States, adoring crowds greeted her at each stop. In spite of Smith’s commercial success, her personal life was very similar to the blues she sang. Her marriage to Jack Gee was stormy

and ended in a bitter separation in 1929. Smith was also struggling to battle liquor.

Smith’s popularity as a recording artist crested around 1929. Then the combination of radio, talking pictures, and the Great Depression (1929–39; a period of severe economic downfall resulting in the loss of jobs for millions) undermined the entire recording industry. The price she could demand dipped and she was forced to sell her railroad car. The smaller towns she played housed theaters of lesser quality. Even so she starred in a 1929 two-reel film, *St. Louis Blues*, a semiautobiographical effort that received some exposure through 1932.

Smith’s lean years ended in 1937, as the recording industry again soared on the craziness of the early Swing Era, spearheaded by the success of Benny Goodman’s (1909–1986) band. Smith had proven adaptable throughout her career and could certainly swing with the best of them. Also, blues singing was experiencing a revival in popular taste.

Tragedy

On the morning of September 26, 1937, Smith and her close friend Richard Morgan were driving from a Memphis performance to Darling, Mississippi, for the next day’s show. Near Clarksdale, Mississippi, their car was involved in an accident resulting in Bessie Smith’s death.

It was estimated that over ten thousand adoring fans attended the funeral of the blues singer who had become the largest-selling recording artist of her day. In *Early Jazz*, Gunther Schuller heralded Smith as “the first complete jazz singer” whose influence on the

legendary Billie Holiday (1915–1959) and a whole generation of jazz singers cannot be overestimated.

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SOCRATES

Born: c. 469 B.C.E.

Died: c. 399 B.C.E.

Athens, Greece

Greek philosopher and logician

The Greek philosopher and logician (one who studies logic or reason) Socrates was an important influence on Plato (427–347 B.C.E.) and had a major effect on ancient philosophy.

Early life

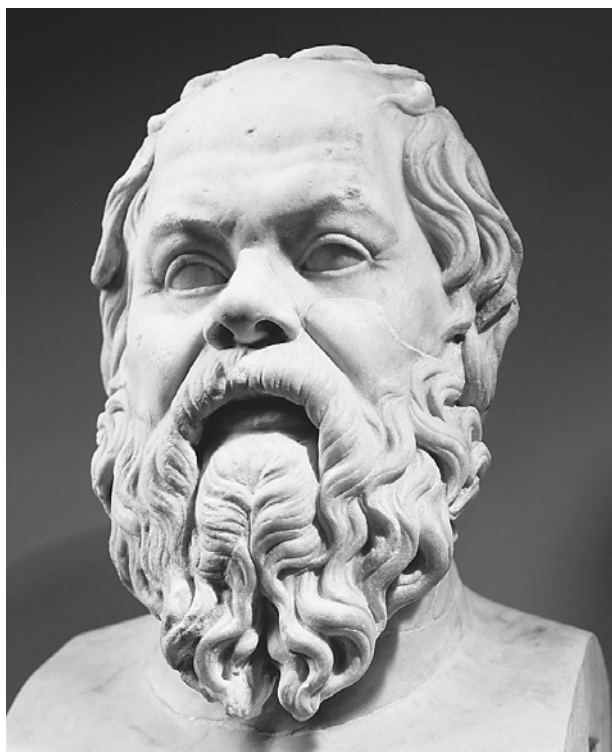
Socrates was the son of Sophroniscus, an Athenian stone mason and sculptor. He learned his father's craft and apparently practiced it for many years. He participated in the

Peloponnesian War (431–04 B.C.E.) when Athens was crushed by the Spartans, and he distinguished himself for his courage. Details of his early life are scarce, although he appears to have had no more than an ordinary Greek education before devoting his time almost completely to intellectual interests. He did, however, take a keen interest in the works of the natural philosophers, and Plato records the fact that Socrates met Zeno of Elea (c. 495–430 B.C.E.) and Parmenides (born c. 515 B.C.E.) on their trip to Athens, which probably took place about 450 B.C.E.

Socrates himself wrote nothing, therefore evidence of his life and activities must come from the writings of Plato and Xenophon (c. 431–352 B.C.E.). It is likely that neither of these presents a completely accurate picture of him, but Plato's *Apology*, *Crito*, *Phaedo*, and *Symposium* contain details which must be close to fact.

From the *Apology* we learn that Socrates was well known around Athens; uncritical thinkers linked him with the rest of the Sophists (a philosophical school); he fought in at least three military campaigns for the city; and he attracted to his circle large numbers of young men who delighted in seeing their elders proved false by Socrates. His courage in military campaigns is described by Alcibiades (c. 450–404 B.C.E.) in the *Symposium*.

In addition to stories about Socrates's strange character, the *Symposium* provides details regarding his physical appearance. He was short, quite the opposite of what was considered graceful and beautiful in the Athens of his time. He was also poor and had only the barest necessities of life. Socrates's physical ugliness did not stop his appeal.



Socrates.

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His thought

There was a strong religious side to Socrates's character and thought which constantly revealed itself in spite of his criticism of Greek myths. His words and actions in the *Apology*, *Crito*, *Phaedo*, and *Symposium* reveal a deep respect for Athenian religious customs and a sincere regard for divinity (gods). Indeed, it was a divine voice which Socrates claimed to hear within himself on important occasions in his life. It was not a voice which gave him positive instructions, but instead warned him when he was about to go off course. He recounts, in his defense before the Athenian court, the story of his friend

Chaerephon, who was told by the Delphic Oracle (a person regarded as wise counsel) that Socrates was the wisest of men. That statement puzzled Socrates, he says, for no one was more aware of the extent of his own ignorance than he himself, but he determined to see the truth of the god's words. After questioning those who had a reputation for wisdom and who considered themselves, wise, he concluded that he was wiser than they because he could recognize his ignorance while they, who were equally ignorant, thought themselves wise.

Socrates was famous for his method of argumentation (a system or process used for arguing or debate) and his works often made as many enemies as admirers within Athens. An example comes from the *Apology*. Meletus had accused Socrates of corrupting the youth, or ruining the youth's morality. Socrates begins by asking if Meletus considers the improvement of youth important. He replies that he does, whereupon Socrates asks who is capable of improving the young. The laws, says Meletus, and Socrates asks him to name a person who knows the laws. Meletus responds that the judges there present know the laws, whereupon Socrates asks if all who are present are able to instruct and improve youth or whether only a few can. Meletus replies that all of them are capable of such a task, which forces Meletus to confess that other groups of Athenians, such as the Senate and the Assembly, and indeed all Athenians are capable of instructing and improving the youth. All except Socrates, that is. Socrates then starts a similar set of questions regarding the instruction and improvement of horses and other animals. Is it true that all men are capable of training horses, or only those men with special qualifications and experience?

Meletus, realizing the absurdity of his position, does not answer, but Socrates answers for him and says that if he does not care enough about the youth of Athens to have given adequate thought to who might instruct and improve them, he has no right to accuse Socrates of corrupting them.

Thus the Socratic method of argumentation begins with commonplace questions which lead the opponent to believe that the questioner is simple, but ends in a complete reversal. Thus his chief contributions lie not in the construction of an elaborate system but in clearing away the false common beliefs and in leading men to an awareness of their own ignorance, from which position they may begin to discover the truth. It was his unique combination of dialectical (having to do with using logic and reasoning in an argument or discussion) skill and magnetic attractiveness to the youth of Athens which gave his opponents their opportunity to bring him to trial in 399 B.C.E.

His death

Meletus, Lycon, and Anytus charged Socrates with impiety (being unreligious) and with corrupting the youth of the city. Since defense speeches were made by the principals in Athenian legal practice, Socrates spoke in his own behalf and his defense speech was a sure sign that he was not going to give in. After taking up the charges and showing how they were false, he proposed that the city should honor him as it did Olympic victors. He was convicted and sentenced to death. Plato's *Crito* tells of Crito's attempts to persuade Socrates to flee the prison (Crito had bribed [exchanged money for favors] the jailer, as was customary), but

Socrates, in a dialogue between himself and the Laws of Athens, reveals his devotion to the city and his obligation to obey its laws even if they lead to his death. In the *Phaedo*, Plato recounts Socrates's discussion of the immortality of the soul; and at the end of that dialogue, one of the most moving and dramatic scenes in ancient literature, Socrates takes the hemlock (poison) prepared for him while his friends sit helplessly by. He died reminding Crito that he owes a rooster to Aesculapius.

Socrates was the most colorful figure in the history of ancient philosophy. His fame was widespread in his own time, and his name soon became a household word although he professed no extraordinary wisdom, constructed no philosophical system, established no school, and founded no sect (following). His influence on the course of ancient philosophy, through Plato, the Cynics, and less directly, Aristotle, is immeasurable.

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STEPHEN SONDHEIM

Born: March 22, 1930

New York, New York

American composer

Stephen Sondheim redefined the Broadway musical form with his creative and award winning productions. He continues to be a major force in the shaping of the musical theater.

Early years

Stephen Sondheim was born on March 22, 1930, to upper-middle-class parents, Herbert and Janet Sondheim. His father was a dress manufacturer and his mother was a fashion designer and interior decorator. He studied piano for two years while very young and continued his interest in the musical stage throughout his education.

Sondheim's parents divorced in 1942 and his mother took up residence in Doylestown, Pennsylvania, which was near the summertime residence of Oscar Hammerstein II (1895–1960). As a friend of Hammerstein's son, Sondheim was able to ask the famous librettist (a person who writes the words for a musical or opera) for an evaluation of his first stage work, a high school production produced at the age of fifteen.

Hammerstein's critical evaluation of *By George* began the four-year relationship that was decisive in formulating the young Sondheim's style. Sondheim became Hammerstein's personal assistant and gained entry into the world of professional theater.

While attending Williams College in Massachusetts, Sondheim performed duties in the preparation and rehearsals of the Rogers and Hammerstein productions of *South Pacific* and *The King and I*. Upon graduation he won the Hutchinson Prize, which enabled him to study composition at Princeton University.

Early successes

Sondheim began his professional career in television by writing scripts for the *Topper* and *The Last Word* series. He also composed incidental music (minor pieces used as background or between scenes) for the Broadway musical *Girls of Summer*.

Shortly after that Sondheim made the acquaintance of Arthur Laurents, who introduced him to Jerome Robbins and Leonard Bernstein (1918–1990) as the possible songwriter for *West Side Story*, which was produced in 1957. The young man found himself involved in one of the most successful shows ever produced on Broadway. However, in an interview Sondheim gave to National Public Radio (NPR) in 2002, he said that, in spite of the success of *West Side Story*, he is embarrassed by the lyrics he wrote for the show because of their lack of artistic merit.

Sondheim followed this success by working on the Broadway production of *Gypsy* in 1959, distinguishing himself as one of the great young talents in American musical theater.

Sondheim, intent on broadening his talents, sought productions where he could use his musical as well as lyrical expertise. He produced *A Funny Thing Happened on the Way to the Forum* in 1962, a farce (broad and unsophisticated humor) based on the plays

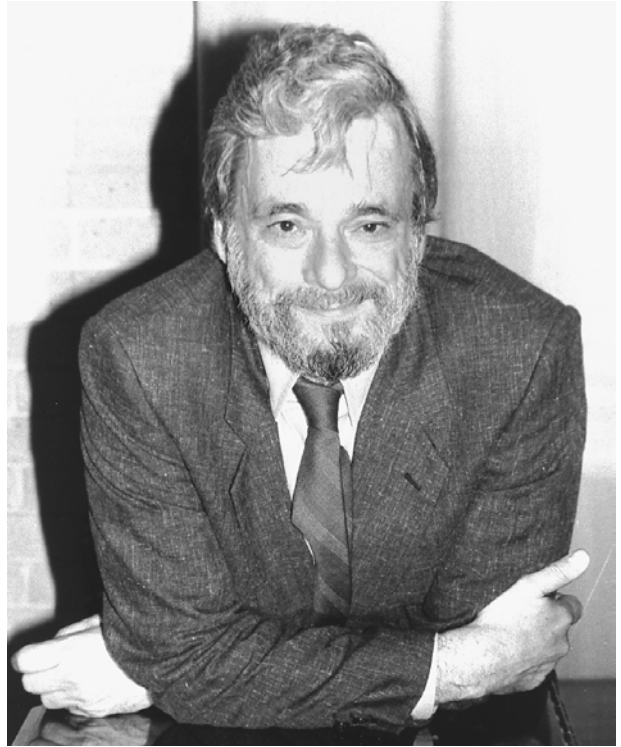
of Plautus (c. 254–184 B.C.E.). The show had an impressive run of almost one thousand performances, won the Tony Award for Best Musical, and was made into a successful film in 1966. Sondheim followed with two less successful ventures: *Anyone Can Whistle* (1964) and *Do I Hear a Waltz* (1965). Although both failed commercially, Sondheim contributed songs of high quality.

Develops his own musicals

In 1970 Sondheim produced *Company*, which once again won him unanimous (an agreement by all) praise from the critics. The production was awarded the Drama Critics and Tony Award for Best Musical of the season, and Sondheim received awards for the best composer (writer of music) and best lyricist (song-writer). One critic commented that *Company* “is absolutely first rate . . . the freshest . . . in years. . . . This is a wonderful musical score, the one that Broadway has long needed.”

The following year Sondheim produced *Follies*, a retrospective (a look back) musical about the Ziegfield Follies, large Broadway productions of the 1920s. The composer blended the nostalgia (sentimental feelings for the past) of popular songs of the past with his own style of sentimental ballad. He was awarded both the Drama Critics and Outer Critics Circle Awards for Best Musical of 1971.

In *A Little Night Music* (1973) Sondheim exposed his strong background in classical music. Critics were reminded of several classical composers: Gustav Mahler (1860–1911), Maurice Ravel (1875–1937), Franz Liszt (1811–1886), and Sergey Rachmaninoff (1873–1943). The musical won the Tony Award and included his first commercial hit song, “Send in the Clowns.”



Stephen Sondheim.

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Noted as a relentless (untiring, unwilling to stop) innovator, Sondheim worked with Hal Prince on *Pacific Overtures* (1976). In an attempt to relate the westernization of Japan with the commercialized present, Sondheim fused the unlikely elements of Haiku poetry (unrhymed verse of three lines that are made up of seventeen syllables), Japanese pentatonic scales (musical scales made up of only five notes), and Kabuki theater (a form of traditional classical Japanese drama) with modern stage techniques in a production that was hailed as a successful Broadway hit. It was followed by *Sweeney Todd* (1979), the melodramatic story of the barber of Fleet Street (Lon-

don) who conspired with the neighborhood baker to supply her with enough barbershop victims for her meat pies. Less funny than tragic, *Sweeney Todd* explored the dark side of the nineteenth-century English social system.

Artistic approach

Sondheim's talent derives from his ability to cross different types of music and theater, thus offering Broadway audiences works of remarkable craft. He deals with unexpected subjects that challenge and test the form of the American musical. Sondheim explores issues of contemporary life: marriage and relationships in *Company*; madness and the human condition in *Anyone Can Whistle*; nostalgia and sentiment in *Follies*; Western imperialism (extension of power) in *Pacific Overtures*; and injustice and revenge in *Sweeney Todd*.

Sondheim avoids filler, or needless content, in his lyrics. He concentrates on direct impact through verbal interplay. His lyrics are witty without ever sacrificing honesty for superficially (shallow and unimportant) clever rhyme. Similarly, he maintains his musical individuality even while operating in the adopted Eastern musical style of *Pacific Overtures*. Sondheim's consistent ability to merge words and music that hint at the deeper personality of his characters distinguishes him as a composer of rare ingenuity (clever at inventing) and talent.

Side by Side by Sondheim, a musical tribute to the artist, was successfully produced in 1976. Sondheim's later works included the film score for *Reds* (1981) and *Sunday in the Park with George* (1984), which won a 1985 Pulitzer Prize. *Into the Woods* was another musical hit on Broadway in 1987.

In recent years many of Sondheim's earlier projects have been reproduced and have enjoyed success in cities in the United States and in Europe. Sondheim's first musical *Front Porch in Flatbush*, which first opened in 1955 on Broadway, was put on in Chicago, Illinois, in 1999. In 2001 *Follies*, a musical that had not been on Broadway since opening in 1971, returned to the New York theater district. In 2000 Sondheim won the best new musical award from the twenty-fifth annual Laurence Olivier Awards for *Merrily We Roll Along*. The show had first opened in 1981 on Broadway but was new to London, England. Sondheim's musicals have thus stood the test of time, as they continue to entertain theatergoers worldwide.

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SOPHOCLES

Born: c. 496 B.C.E.

Colonus, Greece

Died: 406 B.C.E.

Athens, Greece

Greek dramatist

The Greek playwright Sophocles was responsible for several improvements in the presentation of drama. His tragedies (plays in which characters suffer because of their actions and usually die) rank him among the greatest Greek classical dramatists.

Sophocles's background

The son of Sophilus, the owner of a successful weapons factory, Sophocles was born c. 496 B.C.E. in Colonus near Athens, Greece. He grew up during the most brilliant intellectual period of Athens. Sophocles won awards while in school for music and wrestling, and because of his constant activity he was known as the "Attic Bee." His music teacher was Lamprus, a famous composer. Tradition says that because of his beauty and talent, Sophocles was chosen to lead the male chorus at the celebration of the Greek victory over the Persians at Salamis.

In 468 B.C.E. Sophocles defeated the famous playwright Aeschylus (525–456 B.C.E.) in one of the drama contests common at the time. He gained first prize more than any other Greek dramatist. He was also known for being friendly and popular. From 443 to 442 B.C.E. he served the Athenian empire as imperial treasurer, and he was elected general at least twice. His religious activities included service as a priest, and he turned over his house for the worship of Asclepius (the Greek god of medicine) until a proper temple could be built. For this he was honored with the title *Dexion* as a hero after his death. Sophocles had two sons, Iophon and Sophocles, by his first wife, Nicostrata. He had a third son, Ariston, by his second wife, Theoris.

Style and contributions to theater

Of the approximately 125 tragedies that Sophocles is said to have written, only 7 have survived. According to the Greek biographer Plutarch (46–119), there were three periods in Sophocles's development as a writer: imitation of the style of Aeschylus, use of an artificial style, and use of a style that is most expressive of character. The existing plays are from the last period. While the works of Aeschylus deal with the relationship between man and the gods, the works of Sophocles deal with how characters react under stress (mental pressure). Sophocles's heroes are usually subjected to a series of tests that they must overcome.

Sophocles is credited with increasing the number of actors with speaking parts in a play from two to three. He raised the number of chorus members from twelve to fifteen and developed the use of painted scenery. He also abandoned the practice of presenting tragedies as trilogies (series of three works) by instead presenting three plays with different subjects. This led to faster development of characters. Sophocles's songs are also considered to be beautifully structured.

Plays

The dates of Sophocles's seven known plays are not all certain. In *Ajax* (447 B.C.E.) the hero, described as second only to Achilles, is humiliated (reduced to a lower position in the eyes of others) by Agamemnon and Menelaus when they award the arms of Achilles to Odysseus. Ajax vows revenge on the Greek commanders as well as on Odysseus. Except, the goddess Athena makes him believe he is attacking the Greeks when he is in fact attacking sheep. When he realizes what he has done, he is so upset that he com-



Sophocles.

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mits suicide. He is given a proper burial only after Odysseus steps in to make it possible.

The title character in *Antigone* (442–441 B.C.E.) is a young princess whose uncle, King Creon, has forbid her to bury her brother Polyneices. Her brother, in attempting to seize the throne from his brother Eteocles, killed Eteocles in a fight and also died himself. *Antigone* has been interpreted as showing the conflict between devotion to family and devotion to the state. In *Trachiniae* (437–432 B.C.E.) Heracles's wife, Deianira, worries about the fifteen-month absence of her husband. Deianira sends him a poisoned robe that she believes has magical powers to restore lost love. Her

son, Hyllus, and her husband denounce her before dying, and she commits suicide. In this play Sophocles describes the difficult situation of the person who, without meaning to, hurts those whom he or she loves.

Oedipus Rex (429 B.C.E.), which many have considered the greatest play of all time, is not about sex or murder, but man's ability to survive almost unbearable suffering. The worst of all things happens to Oedipus: unknowingly he kills his own father, Laius, and is given his own mother, Jocasta, in marriage after he slays the Sphinx. When a plague (a bacteria-caused disease that spreads quickly and can cause death) at Thebes forces him to consult an oracle (a person through whom a god is believed to speak), he finds that he himself is the cause of the plague. Sophocles brings up the question of justice—why is there evil in the world, and why does the man who is basically good suffer? The answer is found in the idea of *dike*—balance, order, justice. The world is orderly and follows natural laws. No matter how good or how well-meaning man may be, if he breaks a natural law, he will be punished and he will suffer.

Later works

Electra (418–414 B.C.E.) is Sophocles's only play whose theme is similar to those of the works of Aeschylus (*Libation Bearers*) and Euripides (484–406 B.C.E.; *Electra*). Again Sophocles concentrates on a character under stress: a worried Electra, anxiously awaiting the return of her avenging brother, Orestes. In *Philoctetes* (409 B.C.E.) Odysseus is sent with young Neoptolemus, the son of Achilles, to the island of Lemnos to bring back Philoctetes with his bow and arrows to help capture Troy. Neoptolemus has second thoughts and

refuses to deceive the old man. *Philoctetes* clearly shows how man and society can come into conflict and how society can toss aside an individual when it does not need him.

Oedipus at Colonus (401 B.C.E.), produced after Sophocles's death, is the longest of his dramas. It brings to a conclusion his concern with the Oedipus theme. Exiled by Creon, Oedipus becomes a wandering beggar accompanied by his daughter Antigone. He stumbles into a sacred grove at Colonus and asks that Theseus be summoned. Theseus arrives and promises him protection, but Creon tries to remove Oedipus. Theseus comes to the rescue and foils Creon. The arrival of his son Polyneices angers Oedipus, who curses him. Oedipus soon senses his impending death and allows only Theseus to witness the event by which he is changed into a hero and a saint.

"Many are the wonders of the world," says Sophocles in *Antigone*, "but none is more wonderful than man." Sophocles's interest in human welfare is best shown in this famous quotation. Man is able to overcome all kinds of obstacles and is able to be inventive and creative, but he is mortal and therefore limited. Suffering is simply part of the nature of things, but learning can be gained from it, and through suffering man can achieve dignity.

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STEVEN SPIELBERG

Born: December 18, 1947

Cincinnati, Ohio

American film director

Steven Spielberg is one of the wealthiest and most powerful moviemakers in Hollywood. The director of such elaborate fantasies as *Close Encounters of the Third Kind* and *E.T.: The Extra-Terrestrial*, he is regarded as a man who understands the pulse of America as it would like to see itself.

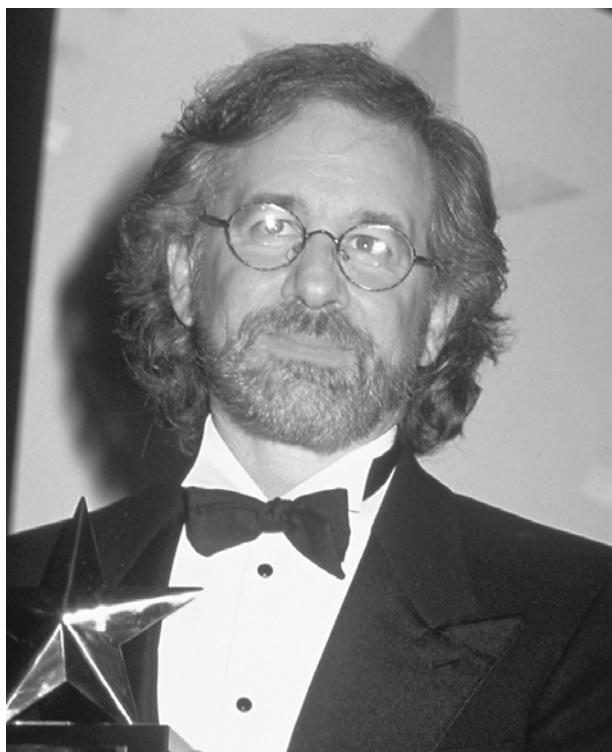
Early years

Steven Spielberg was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, on December 18, 1947. He was the oldest and the only son of four children. His father, Arnold, was an electrical engineer who worked in what was then the newly emerging field of computers. His mother, Leah, had been a concert pianist.

Steven's mother and three sisters doted on (gave a great deal of attention, spoiled) him. He was indulged throughout his childhood at home, but he was not treated the same way at school. He displayed little enthusiasm for his studies and made average grades at best. The Spielbergs moved frequently because of the father's job. They moved to New Jersey, suburban Phoenix, Arizona, and finally to what would be known as "Silicon Valley" near San Jose, California.

The young filmmaker

The first film that Spielberg recalled seeing in a movie theater was *The Greatest Show*



Steven Spielberg.

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on *Earth*, a spectacular 1952 circus epic directed by Cecil B. De Mille (1881–1959). As a child, Spielberg began using his family's home movie camera. He started recording camping trips and other family events but soon grew dissatisfied with them. He began to film narrative movies and attempted to set up shots with different angles and primitive special effects. By the time he was twelve years old he actually filmed a movie from a script using a cast of actors. He grew increasingly ambitious and continued to make movies from then on.

When Spielberg was sixteen, he filmed a feature-length science fiction movie, which

he entitled *Firelight*. This movie was over two hours long and had a complex plot about an encounter with some aliens. His father rented a local movie theater to show the film. In one night it made back the \$500 it cost to film it.

Spielberg's poor grades in high school prevented him from entering the University of Southern California (UCLA), but he was accepted at California State College at Long Beach. He graduated in 1970 with a bachelor's degree in English. Because California State had no formal film program, he frequently went to the movies and saw every film that he could. He also cajoled (flattered and manipulated) his way past the guards at Universal Studios and watched major projects being filmed.

Spielberg continued to make films and prepared a short subject film, *Amblin'*, which he later entered in the 1969 Atlanta Film Festival. It also won an award at the Venice Film Festival, and got him a seven-year contract at the studio whose gates he used to crash—Universal. Studio executives had been so impressed with *Amblin'*, a simple story about a boy and girl who hitchhike from the Mojave Desert to the ocean, that they released it with *Love Story*, a major hit of 1970. Today Spielberg uses the name “Amblin” for his own production company.

Early successes

Spielberg began his career as a professional by directing several episodes of television programs that were being shot at Universal. Included in his work at this time were episodes of *Marcus Welby, M.D.* and *Columbo*.

The first movie that Spielberg directed professionally was a made-for-television

movie named *Duel*. It was about a deadly battle of wits between an ordinary man driving a car and a crazed driver of an eighteen-wheeler truck. It was generally regarded as one of the greatest movies ever made for U.S. television. It was released in movie theaters in Europe and Japan as a feature film. It took sixteen days to make and had only cost \$350,000 to produce. Its release overseas earned over \$5 million and the film earned many awards.

Spielberg was offered many scripts to film after that, but he was not impressed by the quality of the properties that he was offered. He withdrew from the studio mainstream for a year in order to develop a project of his own.

Directing what he wanted

What Spielberg came up with was *The Sugarland Express*, a drama about a woman who browbeats (forcefully convinces) her husband into breaking out of jail to kidnap their baby from its foster parents. A spectacular car chase happens after the couple steals a police cruiser. The film was a critical success but a commercial failure. Nonetheless, it led to the breakthrough film of Spielberg's career, the spectacularly successful *Jaws* (1975).

Despite bringing in *Jaws* at 100 percent over its \$3.5 million budget, Spielberg became Hollywood's favorite director of the moment when the film grossed over \$60 million in its first month. The film was as popular with critics as with the public. Spielberg was now in a position to do whatever he wanted. He embarked on a film whose subject had obsessed him since his childhood.

Science fiction and beyond

Close Encounters of the Third Kind (1977) was perhaps Spielberg's most personal film. It dealt with the heroic efforts of average middle-class Americans to make contact with visitors from another planet. For all of its staggering special effects, its power derived from its exploration of what people will do when they find that they have the opportunity to make their dreams come true.

The "Indiana Jones" trilogy (1981–1989), *E.T.: The Extra-Terrestrial* (1982), and *The Color Purple* (1985) are examples of Spielberg at his best and worst. The "Indiana Jones" pictures mixed a loving affection for old-time movie serials with a contemporary sensibility. However, the high level of gore and violence in the second installment of the series, *Indiana Jones and the Temple of Doom* (1984), led to the creation of a new rating code, "PG-13," which cautions parents to the presence of violence, language, and nudity—but at a level or an intensity that is lower than that found in an R-Rated movie.

E.T. (1982) swept the nation, and its catchphrase, "Phone home!," was heard around the world. Another film, *The Color Purple* (1985), received mixed response. Spielberg was accused of patronizing (treating in a lowly manner; looking down upon) African Americans and prettifying rural Southern poverty. Others praised the movie; in fact, it received multiple awards and award nominations.

Spielberg was a great favorite among his fellow directors, such as George Lucas (1944–) and John Landis (1950–). He stood by the latter when he was implicated in the deaths of three cast members of *Twilight Zone: The Movie*, a film which Spielberg also

worked on. In 1991 Spielberg directed a big-budget movie about Peter Pan called *Hook*.

As Spielberg continued to direct and produce he grew more and more powerful. He was able to make any film that he wanted and seemed totally uninterested in pleasing the public or the critics.

Continued success

Spielberg's 1993 mega-hit *Jurassic Park* was the subject of one of the longest and most intensive pre-release publicity campaigns in film history. It was about a present day theme park that featured genetically engineered dinosaurs as the main attraction. The movie was a box office and home theater success. Spielberg released the sequel entitled *The Lost World: Jurassic Park* in 1997.

Perhaps the most poignant (emotionally moving) of Spielberg's movies was the critically acclaimed *Schindler's List* (1993), which was filmed in black and white. It was a fictionalized account of real life instances in which German businessman Oskar Schindler (1908–1974) saved the lives of thousands of Jews who worked in his factory during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis Powers of Germany, Italy, Japan and the Allies of Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). The picture won the 1993 Best Picture Academy Award and Spielberg won Best Director. In 1999 he won both the Golden Globe and the Academy Award for Best Director for his work on the movie *Saving Private Ryan*.

Spielberg married actress Amy Irving in 1985. They had one son, Max, before a divorce. He later married Kate Capshaw in 1991, and they have five children.

Spielberg has won many awards both in the United States and abroad not only for his films, but also for his work supporting human rights and social justice. He continues to be one of the most powerful film directors and producers in the world.

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BENJAMIN SPOCK

Born: May 2, 1903

New Haven, Connecticut

Died: March 15, 1998

La Jolla, California

American pediatrician and political activist

Benjamin Spock, pediatrician (doctor who treats children) and political activist, was most noted for his book *Baby and Child Care*, which significantly changed widely held attitudes toward the raising of infants and children.

Youth and education

Benjamin McLane Spock was born on May 2, 1903, in New Haven, Connecticut, the oldest child in a large, strict New England family. His family was so strict that in his eighty-second year he would still be saying, "I love to dance in order to liberate myself from my puritanical [strict and conservative] upbringing." He was educated at private preparatory schools when he was young and attended Yale from 1921 to 1925, majoring in English literature. He was also a member of the rowing crew that represented the United States in the 1924 Olympic Games in Paris, France. Spock began medical school at Yale in 1925 but transferred to Columbia University's College of Physicians and Surgeons in 1927. By this time he had married Jane Davenport Cheney.

Spock had decided well before starting his medical studies that he would "work with children, who have their whole lives ahead of them." He believed that pediatricians of the time were focusing too much on the physical side of child development, so he learned psychiatry (medicine focusing on the mind) as well.

Baby and Child Care

Between 1933 and 1944 Spock practiced pediatric (specializing in children) medicine. At the same time he taught pediatrics at Cornell Medical College and consulted (advised) in pediatric psychiatry for the New York City Health Department. On a summer vacation in 1943 he began to write his most famous book, *Baby and Child Care*. He continued to work on it from 1944 to 1946 while serving as a medical officer in the navy.



*Benjamin Spock.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

Many early baby-care books said to feed infants on a strict schedule and not to pick them up when they cried. Spock's book broke with the strict tone and rigorous instructions found in earlier generations of baby-care books. Spock told his readers, "You know more than you think you do. . . . Don't be afraid to trust your own common sense. . . . Take it easy, trust your own instincts, and follow the directions that your doctor gives you." The response was overwhelming. At that time *Baby and Child Care* became America's all-time best-seller except for William Shakespeare's (1564–1616) works and the Bible. By 1976 it had also passed Shakespeare.

After Spock's discharge from the navy, he became associated with the famous Mayo Clinic (1947–1951). He then became a professor of child development at the University of Pittsburgh (1951–1955) and at Case Western Reserve (1955–1967).

Becomes politically active

Spock's political activism began during this period, growing logically out of his concern for children. A healthy environment for growing children, he believed, included a radiation-free atmosphere to breathe. In 1962 he became cochairman of SANE, an organization dedicated to stopping nuclear bomb tests in the Earth's atmosphere.

The following year Spock campaigned for Medicare, a government program to help older citizens. He angered the American Medical Association, many of whose members were already suspicious of a colleague who wrote advice columns for the *Ladies Home Journal* and *Redbook* instead of writing technical articles for the medical journals.

Spock was an early opponent of the Vietnam War (1955–75; a conflict fought in Vietnam when Communist North Vietnam invaded democratic South Vietnam). As the war escalated (grew), so did antiwar protest, in which Spock participated energetically. He marched and demonstrated with young people who had not yet been born when he had begun his medical career.

Spock's political opponents accused him of teaching "permissiveness" in *Baby and Child Care*. They claimed an entire generation of American youth had been raised and ruined. Without success Spock pointed out that similar student protests were happening in Third

World countries, where his book was not sold, and were not happening in Western European countries, where it sold well.

Baby and Child Care revised

Because of Spock's own strict personal upbringing and his acute moral sense, he may have intended a lot less than some of them realized when he told parents to "relax." In 1968 he revised *Baby and Child Care* to make his intentions more clear, now cautioning his readers "Don't be afraid that your children will dislike you" when they set limits and enforced them. Nevertheless, the 1968 edition showed a fifty percent drop in sales. Spock thought it was because of his stand on the war in Vietnam.

On May 20, 1968, Spock was put on trial for conspiracy, along with several other leading war protesters. The charge was that he had counseled young people to resist the draft. He was convicted, but on appeal the verdict was set aside (cancelled) on a technicality (small detail). Some upset readers turned in their well-thumbed copies of *Baby and Child Care* in order to prevent further undermining of their children's patriotism. To many other readers, however, the government's indictment (charging with an offense) of the baby doctor seemed rather like prosecuting Santa Claus.

Modifies and explains his views

Two books published in 1970, *Decent and Indecent: Our Personal and Political Behavior* and *A Teenager's Guide to Life and Love*, made it clear that Spock was a good deal more of a traditional moralist than either his friends or enemies realized. He had been driven into the antiwar and other reform

movements by the same old-fashioned conscience that propelled some of his opponents in exactly the opposite direction. At the same time the doctor showed himself capable of growing and changing. In 1972 he ran for president on the People's Party (an independent political party) ticket.

Spock was also capable of admitting a mistake. Badgered for some five years on the lecture platform by feminists objecting to the gender-role stereotypes of fathers and mothers as they appeared in *Baby and Child Care*, he eventually admitted that much of what they had said had been right. In 1976, thirty years after its initial publication, Spock brought out a third version of the famous book. He deleted material he himself termed "sexist" and called on fathers to share more of the parental responsibility.

Last years

Formally retired in 1967, Spock was the kind of person who never really retired in spirit. Contemplating his own death as his health began to fail in the 1980s, he wrote in 1985 (at the age of eighty-two) that he did not want any dark funeral tunes played over him: "My ideal would be the New Orleans black funeral, in which friends snake-dance through the streets to the music of a jazz band."

Spock had chronic bronchitis and suffered a stroke in 1989. His second wife, Mary, worked with him on his autobiography, *Spock on Spock*, which was published in 1989. Dr. Spock died at his home in La Jolla, California, on March 15, 1998, at the age of ninety-four.

Spock's work influenced how Americans brought up an entire generation of young

people. Even today his books are still regarded as a popular source of information for bringing up children.

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JOSEPH STALIN

Born: December 21, 1879

Gori, Georgia

Died: March 5, 1953

Moscow, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

Russian ruler

The Soviet statesman Joseph Stalin was the supreme ruler of the Soviet Union. He led his country alongside America and England through World War II (1939–45) in their fight against Germany, Italy and Japan. As ruler of Russia, Stalin was the leader of world communism for almost thirty years.

Early years

Joseph Stalin was born Iosif Vissarionovich Dzhugashvili on December 21, 1879, in Gori, Georgia. He was the only surviving son of Vissarion Dzhugashvili, a cobbler who first practiced his craft in a village shop but later in a shoe factory in the city. Stalin's father died in 1891. Stalin's mother, Ekaterina, a religious and illiterate (unable to read or write) peasant woman, sent her teenage son to the theological seminary in Tbilisi (Tiflis), Georgia, where Stalin prepared for the ministry. Shortly before his graduation, however, he was expelled in 1899 for spreading subversive views (ideas that went against those of the government).

Stalin then joined the underground revolutionary Marxist movement in Tbilisi, a movement devoted to the views of Karl Marx (1818–1883) and Frederick Engels (1821–1896), who believed in the political system of socialism that gave power to the working class and would ultimately lead to communism, where goods and services would be distributed by the government. In 1901 he was elected a member of the Tbilisi committee of the Russian Social Democratic Workers Party. The following year he was arrested, imprisoned, and later exiled (forced to move) to Siberia, a cold and remote region of Russia. Stalin escaped from Siberia in 1904 and rejoined the Marxist underground in Tbilisi. When the Russian Marxist movement split into two factions (rival groups), Stalin identified himself with the Bolsheviks.

During the time of the 1904–1905 revolution, Stalin made a name for himself as the organizer of daring bank robberies and raids on money transports, an activity that Marxist leader V. I. Lenin (1870–1924) considered

important due to the party's need for funds. Many other Marxists considered this type of highway robbery unworthy of a revolutionary socialist.

Stalin participated in congresses (governing parties) of the Russian Social Democratic Workers Party at Tampere, London, and Stockholm, Sweden, in 1905 and 1906, meeting Lenin for the first time at these congresses. In 1912 Lenin recruited Stalin into the Central Committee of the Bolshevik party. Stalin spent the major portion of the years from 1905 to 1912 in organizational work for the movement, mainly in the city of Baku, Russia. The secret police arrested him several times, and several times he escaped. Eventually, after his return from Vienna, Austria, the police caught him again, and he was exiled to the faraway village of Turukhansk beyond the Arctic Circle. He remained there until the fall of czarism, the Russian rule of a sole leader or king. He adopted the name Stalin ("man of steel") around 1913.

First Years of Soviet rule

After the fall of czarism, Stalin made his way at once to Petrograd, Russia, where until the arrival of Lenin from Switzerland he was the senior Bolshevik and the editor of *Pravda*, the party newspaper. After Lenin's return, Stalin remained in the high councils of the party, but had only a small role in the preparations for the October Revolution, which placed the Bolsheviks in power. In the first position of the communist Soviet government, he held the post of people's commissar for nationalities (in charge of party loyalty).

Within the party, he rose to the highest ranks, becoming a member of both the Political Bureau and the Organizational Bureau.

When the party Secretariat was organized, he became one of its leading members and was appointed its secretary general in 1922, where Lenin appreciated Stalin's ability as a politician and as a troubleshooter. The strength of Stalin's position in the government and in the party was probably anchored by his secretary generalship, which gave him control over party personnel administration—over admissions, training, assignments, promotions, and disciplinary matters. This position also ranked him as the most powerful man in Soviet Russia after Lenin.

Rise to power

During Lenin's last illness and after his death in 1924, Stalin served as a member of the three-man committee that ran the affairs of the party and the country. Stalin represented, for the time, the right wing (conservative) of the party that wanted to stay true to the ideas of the revolution. He and his spokesman, Nikolai Bukharin (1888–1938), warned against revolutionaries and argued in favor of continuing the more cautious and patient policies that Lenin had installed with the New Economic Policy (NEP).

In 1927 Stalin succeeded in defeating the entire opposition and in eliminating its leaders from the party. He then adopted much of its domestic program by starting a five-year plan of industrial development and by executing it with a degree of recklessness that angered many of his former supporters, who then formed an opposition to him. This opposition, too, was defeated quickly, and by the early 1930s Stalin had gained dictatorial (total) control over the party, the state, and the entire Communist International.



Joseph Stalin.

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Stalin's personality

Although always depicted as a towering figure, Stalin, in fact, was fairly short. His personality was highly controversial, and it remains a mystery. Stalin was crude and cruel and, in some important ways, a primitive man. In political life he tended to be cautious and slow-moving, and his writing style was much the same. Stalin was at times, however, a clever speaker and a fierce debater. He seems to have possessed boundless energy and an amazing ability to absorb detailed knowledge.

About Stalin's private life, little is known beyond the fact that he seems always to have been a lonely man. His first wife, a Georgian

girl named Ekaterina Svanidze, died of tuberculosis, a terrible disease that attacks the lungs and bones. His second wife, Nadezhda Alleluyeva, killed herself in 1932, apparently over Stalin's dictatorial rule of the party. The only child from his first marriage, Jacob, fell into German hands during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis—Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies—led by Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and, later, the United States) and was killed. The two children from his second marriage outlived their father, but they were not always on good terms with him. The son, Vasili, an officer in the Soviet air force, drank himself to death in 1962. The daughter, Svetlana, fled to the United States in the 1960s.

Stalin's achievements

In back-to-back five-year plans, the Soviet Union under Stalin began to modernize (to accept modern ideas and styles) with great speed. Although the military needs of the country drained away precious resources, and World War II brought total destruction to several cities and death to many millions of citizens, the nation by the end of Stalin's life had become an important industrial country in the world, second only to the United States.

The price the Soviet Union paid for this great achievement remains staggering. It included the destruction of all free enterprise (business organizations) in both town and country. The transformation of Soviet agriculture in the early 1930s into collectives (groups of managed farms) tremendously damaged the country's food production. Living standards were drastically lowered at first, and more than a million people died of starvation. Meanwhile, Stalin jailed and executed

vast numbers of party members, especially the old revolutionaries and the leading figures in many other areas. Stalin created a new kind of political system characterized by severe police control, strengthening of the government, and personal dictatorship. Historians consider his government one of history's worst examples of totalitarianism, or having complete political control with no opposition. In world affairs the Stalinist system became isolationist, meaning the country moved away from building relations with foreign nations.

From the middle of the 1930s onward, Stalin personally managed the vast political and economic system he had established. Formally, he took charge of it in May 1941, when he assumed the office of chairman of the Council of Ministers. After Germany invaded the Soviet Union, Stalin also assumed formal command of the entire military establishment.

Stalin's conduct of Russian military strategy in the war remains as controversial as most of his activities. Some evidence indicates that he committed serious mistakes, but other evidence gives him credit for brilliant achievements. The fact remains that under Stalin the Soviet Union won the war, emerged as one of the major powers in the world, and managed to bargain for a distribution of the spoils of war (seized land resulting from Soviet victory) that enlarged its area of domination significantly.

Stalin died of a brain hemorrhage (an abnormal bleeding of the brain) on March 5, 1953. His body was placed in a tomb next to Lenin's in Red Square in Moscow. After his death Stalin became a controversial figure in the communist world, where appreciation for his great achievements was offset by harsh criticism of his methods.

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ELIZABETH CADY STANTON

Born: November 12, 1815

Johnstown, New York

Died: October 26, 1902

New York, New York

American writer and women's rights activist

The writer and reformer Elizabeth Cady Stanton (1815–1902) was perhaps the most gifted feminist leader in American history.

The makings of a feminist

Elizabeth Cady was born in Johnstown, New York, on November 12, 1815. She came from a wealthy and politically important family. Her father, Daniel Cady (1773–1859), was a well-known lawyer who had served in Congress, on the New York state legislature, and as a judge on the New York state supreme court. Her mother came from a wealthy fam-

ily whose members had included a hero of the American Revolution (1775–83), when the thirteen British colonies in North America fought for their freedom.

The Cadys had eleven children, most of whom did not survive to adulthood. Eleazar Cady, their only son to survive, died when he was twenty, leaving them with four daughters. In her autobiography, *Eighty Years and More*, Stanton related her father's feelings at having lost all his male heirs. Although the eleven-year-old Elizabeth attempted to console him, his reaction was to tell her, "Oh, my daughter, I wish you were a boy." The experience made young Cady determined to be the equal of any male. She tried hard to please her father by excelling in areas normally reserved for men, starting with Greek and horsemanship.

Cady's father's profession also led her to embrace the cause of women's rights. As the daughter of a judge, she was exposed early to the legal barriers to women's equality. While still a child, she heard her father tell abused women that they had no legal alternative but to endure mistreatment by their husbands and fathers. She was especially outraged by the rights of husbands to control their wives' property.

Education and marriage

As a young woman, Elizabeth Cady studied at the Troy Female Seminary from 1830 to 1833. She had the best education then available to women. The school offered a strong academic course of studies in addition to the more typical educational options for women at that time—which tended to focus on developing social skills. However, while at Troy, she experienced a nervous col-



Elizabeth Cady Stanton.

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lapse after experiencing a religious conversion (change) that filled her with fears that she would go to hell. After this experience, she developed an intense dislike toward organized religion.

In 1840 she married the abolitionist (a person who is against slavery) leader Henry B. Stanton (1805–1887). Her feminist side showed at the wedding ceremony, in which she insisted (and Stanton agreed) that she would not give the wife's traditional promise to "obey" her husband. Keeping her maiden name as Elizabeth Cady Stanton, rather than going by the name of Mrs. Henry B. Stanton, was also unusual at the time.

Working for suffrage

Although Henry Stanton sympathized with his wife's ambitions for a wider role in the world, he was not wealthy, and she remained home with her five children for many years. All the same, she was able to do some writing and speaking for the feminist cause. In 1848 she organized America's first woman's rights convention in Seneca Falls, New York, where the Stantons lived. She also composed a declaration of principles, which described the history of humankind as one in which men had repeatedly and intentionally suppressed the rights of women in order to establish "absolute tyranny" over them. Despite opposition, she persuaded the convention to approve a resolution calling for women's suffrage, or women's right to vote.

The Civil War (1861–65) was fought between the northern states and southern states to decide whether or not slavery would be allowed in new territories, and whether or not the South would leave the Union to form an independent nation. During the war Stanton and her ally Susan B. Anthony (1820–1906) created the National Woman's Loyal League to build support for what became the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which ended slavery in the United States. Once the slaves were free, Stanton and Anthony worked to ensure that women would be given the vote along with former male slaves. However, it was thought that if the struggle to gain the right to vote for black men was associated with votes for women, neither black men nor women of any color would get the vote.

This opposition only made Stanton and her colleagues more stubborn. Their campaign finally divided the women's suffrage

movement into two camps. One was their own, New York-based band of uncompromising radicals (people who are extreme in their political beliefs), called the National Woman Suffrage Association. The other was a more conservative group, the American Woman Suffrage Association, which was centered in Boston and supported the idea that attaining the vote for black men was more important than demanding the vote for women. There were several differences in the positions of the two organizations, and a good deal of personal hostility developed between them. By 1890, however, these problems were overcome, and the two organizations merged into the National American Woman Suffrage Association. Stanton became the group's president.

Later years

Stanton remained active during her later years, however, she was less concerned with suffrage and more interested in reforming divorce laws and other similar matters. A stylish and witty writer, she worked with Anthony and Matilda Gage on the first three volumes of the massive collection *History of Woman Suffrage* and edited *The Woman's Bible*. Stanton also wrote articles on a variety of subjects for the best magazines of her time. She died on October 26, 1902, in New York City. With Susan B. Anthony, she is recognized today as one of the most important figures in the early movement to gain women's rights in the United States.

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EDITH STEIN

Born: October 12, 1891

Breslau, Germany

Died: August 9, 1942

Auschwitz, Poland

German philosopher

German philosopher Edith Stein was a leading supporter of the early twentieth century's phenomenological school of thought, which explored human awareness and perception. A Jew by birth who converted to Catholicism, she was killed in a Nazi (having to do with members of the German Socialist Party led by Adolf Hitler from 1933 to 1945) concentration camp (a guarded enclosure where political prisoners were kept) and canonized (declared a saint) in 1998.

Childhood

Edith Stein was born on October 12, 1891, in Breslau, Germany. She was the youngest of eleven children born to Jewish lumber merchants hailing originally from Silesia (now part of Poland). Raised in a very religious atmosphere, four of her siblings died



Edith Stein.

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before Stein's birth. Stein's father died when she was only a year old, leaving her mother, Auguste Stein, in charge of the debt-ridden business and the surviving children. Because her mother was required to devote most of her time to work outside the home, her oldest daughter, Else, took on much of the responsibility of raising the younger children.

As a child, Stein was known for her intelligence and sense of humor—she would often recite poetry and make clever remarks. But she disliked her reputation as “the smart one” of the family and began to develop a more quiet nature in her early school days. She attended the Victoria School in Breslau,

where she not only began classes early, but quickly became the top student in her grade. Her love of learning extended to her hours at home as well, where she spent much of her free time reading.

At the age of thirteen, Stein underwent a crisis of faith and decided to leave school. Although she no longer believed in God, she did not discuss her beliefs with her family and continued to attend religious services. Stein soon came to terms with her new ideas and decided to devote her life to teaching and the pursuit of the truth. She returned to Victoria School and completed her coursework in hopes of attending college.

Discovering Catholicism

Stein began her advanced education at the University of Breslau in 1911 where she was influenced by the works of Edmund Husserl (1859–1938) who was a professor of philosophy (the study of knowledge) at Göttingen University and was the founder of the school of thought known as phenomenology, an examination of the development of human awareness. The work was an eye-opener to Stein, who decided that she wanted to study with Husserl at Göttingen. It was at Göttingen that Stein was first exposed to the Roman Catholic faith. When in 1916 Husserl took a professorship at the University of Freiburg, he requested that Stein join him as his graduate assistant. She was very successful at Freiburg and soon became known as a top philosopher at the university.

Stein's interest in Catholicism increased in 1917 which led her to read the New Testament, the second half of the Bible. These experiences convinced Stein that she believed in God and the divinity of Jesus

Christ, but did not convert to Catholicism until 1921.

During a stay at a girl's school in Speyer, Germany, Stein was encouraged by the Jesuit priest and philosopher Erich Przywara not to abandon her academic work. At his urging, she began a German translation of a Latin work on truth by St. Thomas Aquinas (1225–1274). Through her study of Aquinas and her discussions with Przywara, she was convinced that she could serve God through a search for truth. Her writing and translations became popular, and Stein was invited to lecture for a number of groups on religious and women's issues in Germany, Switzerland, and Austria.

Completes book on Jewish life

Attacks on Jewish people were becoming frequent and in 1933, Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) and his Nazi Party came to power in Germany. One result of the rise of Hitler was that Stein and other people of Jewish origin in university positions were fired from her job. Stein felt that she had a unique opportunity and responsibility, as a Jewishborn Catholic, to bridge the gap of understanding between Christians and Jews. To accomplish this, she wrote the book *Aus dem Leben einer Jüdischen Familie*, ("Life in a Jewish Family") which tried to show the similar human experiences of Jews and Christians in their daily lives. In 1933, she attempted to combine the thoughts of Husserl and Aquinas in her book *Endliches und ewiges Sein* ("Finite and Eternal Being"), completed in 1936. Under the anti-Jewish laws in effect then, however, the book was refused for publication and was not printed until 1950.

Because of the Nazi rule, Stein realized she was no longer safe in her native country and fled to a convent (a community of nuns) in Echt in the Netherlands on December 31, 1938. In Echt, she was joined by her sister Rosa, who had also converted to Catholicism.

Killed in concentration camp

In 1942 the Nazis began removing Jews from the Netherlands, and Stein urgently applied for a Swiss visa (an official authorization of travel) in order to transfer to a convent in Switzerland. Her sister was unable to arrange similar travel arrangements, however, and Stein refused to leave without her. On August 2, 1942, the sisters were removed from the convent at Echt by Nazi troops and transported to a concentration camp at Amersfoort, Netherlands, for a few days before being sent on to the Auschwitz camp in Poland. While nothing is known about their last days or the exact circumstances of their deaths, it is assumed the women were among the many people killed in the Nazi gas chambers, placed in mass graves on the site, and later cremated, or burned to ashes.

In 1987, decades after the travesties of the Jewish Holocaust (the horrors imposed by the Nazis which resulted in the deaths of thousands of Jews), Stein was beatified (blessed) by Pope John Paul II (1920–), who praised her as a Catholic martyr (one who dies for their beliefs) and also praised her phenomenological works. This created controversy among Jewish groups, who were upset that she was remembered in this way since the reason she was killed was because she was a Jew, not because she was Catholic. In an apologetic statement, John Paul II acknowledged that her fate was a symbol of

the great loss of Jewish life during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis Powers: Germany, Italy, and Japan, and the Allied Powers: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). This discussion highlighted the difficult, but important place Stein holds among both Jews and Catholics. Stein's canonization (emergence to sainthood) by the Pope on October 11, 1998, also drew protest from some Jews.

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GERTRUDE STEIN

Born: February 3, 1874

Allegheny, Pennsylvania

Died: July 27, 1946

Neuilly, France

American writer

American writer Gertrude Stein was a powerful literary force in the early part of the twentieth century. Although the ultimate value of her writing was a matter of debate, it greatly affected the work of a generation of American writers.

Childhood

Gertrude Stein was born in Allegheny, Pennsylvania, on February 3, 1874, the youngest of five children of Daniel and Amelia Stein, her wealthy German-Jewish-American parents. As a child, she lived in Vienna, Austria, and Paris, France, but grew up mainly in Oakland, and San Francisco, California. Living in these different countries, she learned to speak German, French, and English fluently. She also learned music and dance. Her early formal education was spotty, but she was a dedicated reader and had a strong interest in art. When Stein was fourteen her mother died, followed by her father just three years later. With the family splintered, Stein, along with one sister, moved to Baltimore, Maryland, to live with her aunt.

With only a year of high school, Stein managed to be admitted in 1893 to Radcliffe College, in Massachusetts, where she specialized in psychology (the study of the mind) and became a favorite of psychologist and philosopher (one who seeks wisdom about humans and their place in the universe) William James (1842–1910). He discovered her great capacity for automatic writing, in which the conscious waking mind is suspended and the unconscious sleeping mind takes over. The emphasis of the primitive mind at the expense of the sophisticated mind was to become an important part in Stein's theory and is demonstrated in most of her writing.

Moves to France

Stein did not take a degree at Radcliffe or Johns Hopkins University, in Maryland, where she studied medicine for four years. In 1903 she went to Paris, France, and took up residence on the Left Bank (a famous neighborhood in Paris) with her brother Leo. In 1907 she met Alice B. Toklas (1877–1967), a wealthy young San Franciscan who became her lifelong companion and secretary, running the household, typing manuscripts, and screening visitors. France became their permanent home.

During Stein's early Paris years she established herself as a champion of the avant-garde painters, or artists that strive for new methods and techniques within their art. With her inherited wealth she supported young artists and knew virtually all of the important painters, including Pablo Picasso (1881–1973), who did a famous portrait of her, Henri Matisse (1869–1954), Juan Gris (1887–1927), Andrée Derain (1880–1954), and Georges Braque (1882–1963). Her brother Leo became a famous art critic, but their relationship, which had been extremely close, fell apart in 1912 because of a disagreement over his marriage.

Stein's first two books, *Three Lives* (1909) and *Tender Buttons* (1915), stirred considerable interest among a limited but sophisticated audience, and her home became an informal meeting place visited by many creative people, including American composer Virgil Thomson (1896–1969), British writers Ford Madox Ford (1873–1939), Lytton Strachey (1880–1932), and Edith Sitwell (1887–1964), and American writers Ezra Pound (1885–1972), Elliot Paul (1891–1958), Sherwood Anderson (1876–1941), F. Scott Fitzgerald (1896–

1940), and Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961). It was to Hemingway that Stein characterized the disenchanted expatriate veterans (those living overseas) as a "lost generation."

A woman with deep black eyes and a supremely self-assured manner, Stein was frequently intimidating, impatient with disagreement, and oftentimes pushed people away. The unique style of her writing appealed primarily to a small audience, but her reputation as a patron of the arts was lifelong.

Stein's 1934 visit to the United States for the opening of her opera *Four Saints in Three Acts*, with music by Virgil Thomson, started an

enormously successful university lecture tour. During the German occupation of France (the time during World War II when German forces took over large portions of France), both Stein and Toklas lived briefly in Culoz, France, returning to Paris in 1944. Stein's reactions to World War II (1939–45; a war in which American-led British, French, Soviet, and American forces battled those led by Germany) were recorded in *Paris, France* (1940) and *Wars I Have Seen* (1945), and her interest in the soldiers was reflected in the conversations of *Brewsie and Willie* (1946), which was published a week before her death, on July 27, 1946, in Neuilly, France.

Her writings

Stein's first book, *Three Lives*, her most realistic work, foreshadowed her more abstract (conceptual and not easily expressed by conventional methods) writings and demonstrated a number of influences including, Gustave Flaubert's (1821–1880) *Trois contes*, and automatic writing. "Melanctha," the best of the three novellas (written pieces that are shorter than a novel but longer than a short story) that made up the book, was an especially tender treatment of an impulsive, flirting African American woman whose relations with men were recorded in a informal, deliberately repetitious style intended to capture the immediacy of consciousness. Stein wanted to give literature the plastic freedom that painting has, and *Tender Buttons* was a striking attempt at verbal "portraits" in the manner of the cubist painters, an early twentieth-century movement that emphasized the use of geometric shapes.

Stein's *The Making of Americans: Being a History of a Family's Progress* (1925) gave

character analysis within a family chronicle, although it was chiefly concerned with the servants and only very little with the family members. In the 1930s and 1940s she concentrated on memoirs (an account of personal experience), aesthetic theory, plays, and art criticism. *How to Write* (1931) and *The Geographical History of America: The Relation of Human Nature to the Human Mind* (1936) explained the theoretical basis of her literary practice.

The Autobiography of Alice B. Toklas (1933), written as if by Toklas, was an autobiography of Stein. Unexpectedly readable and charming, it became a best-seller. Critic F. W. Dupee called it "one of the best memoirs in American literature." A sequel, *Everybody's Autobiography* (1937), described Stein's visit to America, and *Portraits and Prayers* (1934) was a collection of verbal pictures of her Paris circle.

Stein's libretto (opera) for *Four Saints in Three Acts* (1934) was a study of the attraction of opposites—the self-disciplined and the compassionate. *Picasso* (1939) was an inconsistent, witty, sometimes illuminating study of the development of the great painter's art. Her three wartime books and *In Savoy; Or Yes Is for a Very Young Man: A Play of the Resistance in France* (1946) showed unexpected social concern.

After Stein's death, there were numerous publications of the works she left behind. Some of the more notable are *The Previously Uncollected Writings of Gertrude Stein* and *Dear Sammy: Letters from Gertrude Stein and Alice B. Toklas*. These works were released in 1974 and 1977 respectively. In 1996 Stein's *Four Saints in Three Acts* was remade into an avant-garde opera.

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JOHN STEINBECK

Born: February 27, 1902

Salinas, California

Died: December 20, 1968

New York, New York

American writer

John Steinbeck, American author and winner of the Nobel Prize in 1962, was a leading writer of novels about the working class and was a major spokesman for the victims of the Great Depression (a downturn in the American system of producing, distributing, and using goods and services in the 1930s, and during which time millions of people lost their jobs).

Early life

John Ernst Steinbeck was born on February 27, 1902, in Salinas, California, the only son of John Ernst Steinbeck Sr. and Olive Hamilton. His father was a bookkeeper and accountant who served for many years as

the treasurer of Monterey County, California. Steinbeck received his love of literature from his mother, who was interested in the arts. His favorite book, and a main influence on his writing, was Sir Thomas Malory's (c. 1408–1471) *Le Morte d'Arthur*, a collection of the legends of King Arthur. Steinbeck decided while in high school that he wanted to be a writer. He also enjoyed playing sports and worked during the summer on various ranches.

Steinbeck worked as a laboratory assistant and farm laborer to support himself through six years of study at Stanford University, where he took only those courses that interested him without seeking a degree. In 1925 he traveled to New York (by way of the Panama Canal) on a freighter (boat that carries inventory). After arriving in New York, he worked as a reporter and as part of a construction crew building Madison Square Garden. During this time he was also collecting impressions for his first novel. *Cup of Gold* (1929) was an unsuccessful attempt at romance involving the pirate Henry Morgan.

Begins writing seriously

Undiscouraged, Steinbeck returned to California to begin work as a writer of serious fiction. A collection of short stories, *The Pastures of Heaven* (1932), contained vivid descriptions of rural (farm) life among the “unfinished children of nature” in his native California valley. His second novel, *To a God Unknown* (1933), was his strongest statement about man's relationship to the land. With *Tortilla Flat* (1935) Steinbeck received critical and popular success; there are many critics who consider it his most artistically satisfying work.



John Steinbeck.

Steinbeck next dealt with the problems of labor unions in *In Dubious Battle* (1936), an effective story of a strike (when workers all decide to stop working as a form of protest against unfair treatment) by local grape pickers. *Of Mice and Men* (1937), first conceived as a play, is a tightly constructed novella (short novel) about an unusual friendship between two migrant workers (laborers who travel to wherever there is available work, usually on farms). Although the book is powerfully written and often moving, some critics feel that it lacks a moral vision.

Steinbeck's series of articles for the *San Francisco Chronicle* on the problems of migrant farm laborers provided material for

The Grapes of Wrath (1939), his major novel and the finest working-class novel of the 1930s. *The Grapes of Wrath* relates the struggle of a family of Oklahoma tenant farmers forced to turn over their land to the banks. The family then journeys across the vast plains to the promised land of California—only to be met with scorn when they arrive. It is a successful example of social protest in fiction, as well as a convincing tribute to man's will to survive. *The Grapes of Wrath* received the Pulitzer Prize in 1940.

Other subjects

During World War II (1939–45), which the United States entered to help other nations battle Germany, Italy, and Japan, Steinbeck served as a foreign correspondent. From this experience came such nonfiction as *Bombs Away: The Story of a Bomber Team* (1942); *Once There Was a War* (1958), a collection of Steinbeck's dispatches from 1943; and *A Russian Journal* (1948), with photographs by Robert Capa. More interesting nonfiction of this period is *The Sea of Cortez*, coauthored with scientist Edward F. Ricketts. This account of the two explorers' research into sea life provides an important key to many of the themes and attitudes featured in Steinbeck's novels.

Steinbeck's fiction during the 1940s includes *The Moon Is Down* (1942), a tale of the Norwegian resistance to occupation by the Nazis (German ruling party that scorned democracy and considered all non-German people, especially Jews, inferior); *Cannery Row* (1944), a return to the setting of *Tortilla Flat*; *The Wayward Bus* (1947); and *The Pearl*, a popular novella about a poor Mexican fisherman who discovers a valuable pearl that brings bad luck to his family.

Later decline

In the 1950s Steinbeck's artistic decline was evident with a series of novels that were overly sentimental, stuffy, and lacking in substance. The author received modest critical praise in 1961 for his more ambitious novel *The Winter of Our Discontent*, a study of the moral disintegration (falling apart) of a man of high ideals. In 1962 *Travels with Charley*, a pleasantly humorous account of his travels through America with his pet poodle, was well received. Following the popular success of the latter work, Steinbeck was awarded the Nobel Prize.

Steinbeck's work remains popular in both the United States and Europe, chiefly for its social consciousness and concern and for the narrative qualities displayed in the early novels. Although he refused to settle into political conservatism (preferring to maintain traditions and resist change) in his later years, his all-embracing support of American values and acceptance of all national policies, including the Vietnam War (1955–75; conflict in which the United States fought against Communist North Vietnam when they invaded Democratic South Vietnam), lost him the respect of many liberal (preferring social change) intellectuals who had once admired his social commitments. He died on December 20, 1968, in New York City.

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ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON

Born: November 13, 1850

Edinburgh, Scotland

Died: December 3, 1894

Upolu, Samoa

Scottish writer

The Scottish novelist, essayist, and poet Robert Louis Stevenson was one of the most popular and highly praised British writers during the last part of the nineteenth century.

Sickly childhood

Robert Louis Stevenson was born on November 13, 1850, in Edinburgh, Scotland, the son of a noted lighthouse builder and harbor engineer. Though healthy at birth, Stevenson soon became a victim of constant breathing problems that later developed into tuberculosis, a sometimes fatal disease that attacks the lungs and bones. These persistent health problems made him extremely thin and weak most of his life.

By the time Stevenson entered Edinburgh University at the age of sixteen to study engineering, he had fallen under the spell of language and had begun to write. For



Robert Louis Stevenson.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

several years he attended classes irregularly, developing a bohemian existence (an artistic lifestyle different than that of mainstream society), complete with long hair and velvet jackets. He also associated himself with Edinburgh's seedy and dangerous neighborhoods.

Early works

When Stevenson was twenty-one years old, he openly declared his intention of becoming a writer, against the strong opposition of his father. Agreeing to study law as a compromise, in 1875 Stevenson was admitted to the Scottish bar, an organization for lawyers. Having traveled to the European

mainland several times for health and pleasure, he now swung back and forth between Scotland and a growing circle of artistic and literary friends in London, England, and Paris, France. Stevenson's first book, *An Inland Voyage* (1878), related his adventures during a canoe trip on Belgium and France's canals.

In France in 1876 Stevenson met an American woman named Fanny Osbourne. Separated from her husband, she was eleven years older than Stevenson and had two children. Three years later Stevenson and Osbourne were married. After accompanying his wife to America, Stevenson stayed in an abandoned mining camp, later recounted in *The Silverado Squatters* (1883). A year after setting out for the United States, Stevenson was back in Scotland. But the climate there proved to be a severe hardship on his health, and for the next four years he and his wife lived in Switzerland and in the south of France. Despite his health, these years proved to be productive. The stories Stevenson collected in *The New Arabian Nights* (1883) and *The Merry Men* (1887) range from detective stories to Scottish dialect tales, or tales of the region.

Popular novels

Treasure Island (1881, 1883), first published as a series in a children's magazine, ranks as Stevenson's first popular book, and it established his fame. A perfect romance, according to Stevenson's formula, the novel tells the story of a boy's involvement with murderous pirates. *Kidnapped* (1886), set in Scotland during a time of great civil unrest, has the same charm. In its sequel, *David Balfour* (1893), Stevenson could not avoid psychological and moral problems without marked strain. In *The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll*

and *Mr. Hyde* (1886) he dealt directly with the nature of evil in man and the hideous effects that occur when man seeks to deny it. This work pointed the way toward Stevenson's more serious later novels. During this same period he published a very popular collection of poetry, *A Child's Garden of Verses* (1885).

After the death of Stevenson's father in 1887, he again traveled to the United States, this time for his health. He lived for a year at Saranac Lake, New York, in the Adirondack Mountains. In 1889 Stevenson and his family set out on a cruise of the South Sea Islands. When it became clear that only there could he live in relatively good health, he settled on the island of Upolu in Samoa. He bought a plantation (Vailima), built a house, and gained influence with the natives, who called him Tusifala ("teller of tales"). By the time of his death on December 3, 1894, Stevenson had become a significant figure in island affairs. His observations on Samoan life were published in the collection *In the South Seas* (1896) and in *A Footnote to History* (1892). Of the stories written in these years, "The Beach of Falesá" in *Island Nights' Entertainments* (1893) remains particularly interesting as an exploration of the confrontation between European and native ways of life.

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BRAM STOKER

Born: November 8, 1847

Clontarf, Ireland

Died: April 20, 1912

London, England

Irish writer

Bram Stoker is best known as the author of *Dracula* (1897), one of the most famous horror novels of all time.

Early life

Abraham Stoker was born in Clontarf, Ireland, on November 8, 1847. He was a sickly child, bedridden for much of his boyhood until about the age of seven. As a youth, Stoker was intrigued by the stories told him by his mother, Charlotte. Especially influential to the mind of young Stoker were the stories she related about the cholera epidemic of 1832 which claimed thousands of lives. These cruel and vivid tales began to shape the young Stoker's imagination.

Stoker grew up strong, and as a student at Trinity College, in Dublin, Ireland, he excelled in athletics as well as academics, and graduated with honors in mathematics in 1870. He worked for ten years in the Irish Civil Service, and during this time contributed theater criticism to the *Dublin Mail*. His glowing reviews of Henry Irving's performances encouraged the actor to seek him out. The two became friends, and in 1879 Stoker became Irving's manager. He also performed managerial, secretarial, and even directorial duties at London, England's Lyceum Theatre. In 1878 he married Flo-



Bram Stoker.

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rence Balcombe and the couple moved to Cheyne Walk, Chelsea, in London.

Early writings

Despite Stoker's active personal and professional life, he began writing and publishing novels, beginning with *The Snake's Pass* in 1890. The success of this book prompted Stoker to continue writing.

Although most of Stoker's novels were favorably reviewed when they appeared, they are dated by their stereotyped characters (characters based on broad generalizations) and romanticized plots, and are rarely read today. Even the earliest reviews frequently

point out the stiff characterization and tendency to be overly dramatic that flaw Stoker's writing. Critics have universally praised, however, his beautifully precise place descriptions. Stoker's short stories, while sharing the faults of his novels, have fared better with modern readers. Anthologists (a person who puts together a collection of literary pieces) frequently include Stoker's stories in collections of horror fiction. "Dracula's Guest," originally intended as an introductory chapter to *Dracula*, is one of the best known. After a pair of books—*The Watter's Mou'* and *Antheneum*—were well received, he began research into the world of vampires.

Dracula

Stoker's *Dracula* appeared in 1897. The story is centered around the diaries and journal entries of Jonathan Harke when he meets the mysterious Count Dracula. The Transylvanian follows Harke to England, where the count continues his blood-thirsty endeavors. Laced with themes of lust and desire, Stoker spins a bloodcurdling tale that still haunts readers more than one hundred years after it was first published.

Dracula is generally regarded as the culmination of the Gothic (style of the twelfth to fifteenth centuries) vampire story, preceded earlier in the nineteenth century by William Polidori's *The Vampyre*, Thomas Prest's *Varney the Vampyre*, J. S. Le Fanu's *Carmilla*, and Guy de Maupassant's *Le Horla*. An early reviewer of *Dracula* in the *Spectator* commented that "the up-to-dateness of the book—the phonograph diaries, typewriters, and so on—hardly fits in with the medieval methods which ultimately secure the victory for Count Dracula's foes." The narrative, comprising journal

entries, letters, newspaper clippings, a ship's log, and phonograph recordings, allowed Stoker to contrast his character's actions with their own analysis of their acts.

Some early critics of Stoker's novel noted the "unnecessary number of hideous incidents" which could "shock and disgust" readers of *Dracula*. One critic even advised keeping the novel away from children and nervous adults. Initially, *Dracula* was interpreted as a straightforward horror novel. Dorothy Scarborough indicated the direction of future criticism in 1916 when she wrote that "Bram Stoker furnished us with several interesting specimens of supernatural life always tangled with other uncanny motives." In 1931 Ernest Jones, in his *On the Nightmare*, drew attention to the theory that these motives involve repressed sexual desires. Critics have since tended to view *Dracula* from a Freudian psychosexual standpoint, which deals with the sexual desires of the unconscious mind. However, the novel has also been interpreted from folkloric, political, medical, and religious points of view.

The legacy of Dracula

Today the name of Dracula is familiar to many people who may be wholly unaware of Stoker's identity, though the popularly held image of the vampire bears little resemblance to the demonic being that Stoker depicted. Adaptations of *Dracula* in plays and films have taken enormous creative freedoms with Stoker's characterization. A resurgence of interest in traditional folklore has revealed that Stoker himself did not use established vampire legends. Yet *Dracula* has had tremendous impact on readers since its publication. Whether Stoker created a universal

fear, or as some modern critics would have it, gave form to a universal fantasy, he created a powerful and lasting image that has become a part of popular culture.

Following the death of Stoker's close friend Irving, in 1905, he was associated with the literary staff of the *London Telegraph* and wrote several more works of fiction, including the horror novels *The Lady of the Shroud* (1909) and *The Lair of the White Worm* (1911). He died on April 20, 1912, in London, England.

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**OLIVER
STONE**

Born: September 15, 1946

New York, New York

American director and writer

Oliver Stone is a writer-director of films with a flashy style that often deal with issues of the 1960s, such as America's involvement with the Vietnam War (1955–75; a war in which the United States aided South Vietnam in its fight against a takeover by Communist North Vietnam). He has won several Academy Awards as a writer and as a director.

Conservative background

Oliver William Stone was born on September 15, 1946, in New York City, the only child of Louis and Jacqueline Goddet Stone. His father was a successful stockbroker. Stone's childhood was marked by all the privileges of wealth—private schooling, summer vacations in France, and most importantly, a sense of patriotism. Stone's father was strongly conservative (one who believes in maintaining social and political traditions and who opposes change). When Stone was a junior at the Hill School, a Pennsylvania college prep academy, his parents decided to divorce. He discovered that his father was actually deeply in debt, which led him to question the values he had been taught. Stone entered Yale University in 1965, but he quit after only one year.

Late in 1965 Stone took a job teaching English at a school in Saigon, South Vietnam. He arrived there at the same time as did the first major commitment of U.S. troops, which were sent to help fight in Vietnam's civil war. Stone left after six months and returned home. While on his way back, he began to work on a novel, which he continued to work on during a brief stay in Mexico and another failed attempt at college. He was unable to find a publisher for it, and he then decided to

join the army. Stone continued to work on the novel, which grew to eleven hundred pages. *A Child's Night Dream* was finally released in 1997.

Shaped by Vietnam experience

Stone could have avoided the Vietnam War by staying in college, but he joined the service and insisted on combat duty in an attempt to prove to his father that he was a man. He soon discovered that real combat was much different than he expected. "Vietnam completely deadened me and sickened me," he told the *Washington Post*. Stone was involved in several deadly battles. He was shot once and wounded by shrapnel (bomb fragments) another time, and he often witnessed the brutal treatment of Vietnamese citizens by U.S. soldiers.

After Stone was discharged and returned to the United States, he enrolled at New York University, where he began to study filmmaking with director Martin Scorsese (1942–). Stone decided he wanted to write screenplays and make movies. Stone graduated from the university in 1971 and within two years had sold his first project to a small Canadian film company. His first writing and directing effort was *Seizure* (1974), a horror story about a writer whose creations come to life.

Seizure did not make money or receive great reviews, and Stone entered a period marked by heavy drug and alcohol use. He finally pulled himself together in 1976 and decided to write a screenplay about his Vietnam experiences. Between 1976 and 1978 Stone wrote two stories on the war: *Platoon*, which was based on himself and other soldiers he had known in Vietnam; and *Born on the Fourth of July*, which was based on the

autobiography (the written story of one's own life) of crippled war veteran Ron Kovic. No studio would touch either property; the scripts were considered too violent and too depressing. Stone's writing talents were recognized, however, and he was invited to work on other projects.

Oscars and controversy

In 1977 Stone was hired to write the screenplay for *Midnight Express*, a drama based on the true-life imprisonment of Bill Hayes in a Turkish jail. Many reviewers criticized the film's violence and accused it of racism (unequal treatment based on race) against the Turks. The controversy (open to dispute) helped the movie turn a profit, and it was also nominated (put forward for consideration) for five Academy Awards. Stone himself won an Oscar for his screenplay.

Stone then wrote and directed the horror movie *The Hand* (1981), and he wrote scripts for other movies, including *Scarface*. The film *Scarface*, which told the story of a ruthless cocaine dealer, offended some with its violence. For Stone, who had rid himself of a cocaine habit while writing the screenplay, it was a very important project. In an effort to exercise more control over his work, Stone then began making films independently. With the backing of Hemdale, a small British production company, he filmed *Salvador* (1986), based on the violence of the United States-supported Salvadoran army. Hemdale then gave Stone the money to make *Platoon* (1986). Stone used the script he had written in 1976 and the film won a number of Oscars, including best picture and best director.

Stone followed *Platoon* with *Wall Street*, his first big-budget project. *Wall Street* told



Oliver Stone.

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the story of a young stockbroker and the ruthless older businessman who influences him. By this time Stone had found the money to film *Born on the Fourth of July* (1989). With Hollywood superstar Tom Cruise (1962–) as the raging Ron Kovic, who endures not only the horror of battle but life in a wheelchair, *Born on the Fourth of July* brought Stone yet another Academy Award for best director.

Stone explored the 1960s with *The Doors* (1991) and his most controversial feature, *JFK* (1991). In *JFK* Kevin Costner plays Jim Garrison, the Texas Attorney General who battled what the film views as a plot to cover up the real circumstances behind the assassi-

nation of President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963). The film's mixture of dream-like scenes and historical details angered many, but even his critics admitted that Stone's methods were effective. Stone returned to the subject of Vietnam for *Heaven and Earth* (1993), showing the war from the point of view of a Vietnamese woman. His brutally violent *Natural Born Killers* (1994), the story of two disturbed young lovers who become famous for their killing spree, was attacked for its casual treatment of violence.

Major step forward

Stone's next film was the story of another American president, Richard Nixon (1913–1994), who resigned in disgrace after the Watergate scandal (in which it was revealed that Nixon had broken the law by using bugging devices to listen in on the conversations of his opponents). With British actor Anthony Hopkins (1937–) in the title role, *Nixon* (1995) earned several Academy Award nominations. Many reviewers praised Stone's newly found ability to overlook his political beliefs and make a universally appealing film.

Stone's more recent film projects include directing *U-Turn* (1997), writing and directing *Any Given Sunday* (1999), and serving as executive producer of the TV movie *The Day Reagan Was Shot* (2001). In 2001 a Louisiana court threw out a lawsuit against Stone and Warner Brothers studios that claimed that viewing *Natural Born Killers* had led two people to shoot a store clerk, leaving her paralyzed. In 2002 Stone traveled to Cuba, where he spent seventy-two hours filming Cuban leader Fidel Castro (1927–) for a documentary (a completely fact-based film) on the country.

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TOM STOPPARD

Born: July 3, 1937

Zlin, Czechoslovakia

Czech-born English playwright

One of England's most important playwrights, Czechoslovakian-born Tom Stoppard is popular in the United States as well. His two great stage successes were *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead* and *The Real Thing*, and he reached an even wider audience—and won an Academy Award—for his screenplay for the 1998 film *Shakespeare in Love*.

Early life and career

The second son of a doctor for the Bata shoe manufacturing company, Thomas Straussler (Stoppard) was born on July 3, 1937, in Zlin, Czechoslovakia. The family fell victim to the Nazi racial laws, a wide-ranging set of laws enforced by Germany's radical Nazi Army that were aimed at severely restricting the freedoms of Jews and other

minorities. Since there was “Jewish blood” in the family, his father was transferred to Singapore in 1939, taking the family with him. When the Japanese invaded that city in 1942, Thomas’s mother fled with her children to India. Dr. Straussler stayed behind and was later killed.

Thomas attended an American boarding school in Darjeeling, India. In 1946 his mother married Kenneth Stoppard, a British army major, and both of her sons took his name. The Stoppards moved to Bristol, England, where Thomas’s stepfather worked in the machine tool industry. Thomas continued his education at a preparatory school in Yorkshire, England.

At age seventeen Thomas felt that he had had enough schooling. He became first a reporter and then a critic for the *Western Daily Press* of Bristol, England, from 1954 to 1958. He left the *Press* and worked as a reporter for the *Evening World*, also in Bristol, from 1958 to 1960. Stoppard then worked as a freelance reporter from 1960 to 1963. During these years he experimented with writing short stories and short plays. In 1962 he moved to London, England, in order to be closer to the center of the publishing and theatrical worlds in the United Kingdom.

The playwright

Stoppard’s first radio plays for the British Broadcasting Company (BBC), *The Dissolution of Dominic Boot* and *M Is for Moon Among Other Things*, aired in 1964. Two more, *Albert’s Bridge* and *If You’re Glad I’ll Be Frank*, followed in 1965. His first television play, *A Separate Peace*, appeared the next year, as did his only novel, *Lord Malquist and Mr. Moon*, and the stage play that established his reputa-



Tom Stoppard.

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tion as a playwright, *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead*.

The year 1968 saw another television play, *Neutral Ground*, and two short works for the theater, *Enter a Free Man* and *The Real Inspector Hound*. In 1970 Stoppard returned to the BBC with the two radio plays, *Artist Descending a Staircase* and *Where Are They Now*. He also authored the television plays *The Engagement* and *Experiment in Television* as well as the stage work *After Magritte*. It was about this time that Stoppard became acquainted with Ed Berman from New York City’s Off-Off-Broadway. Berman was attempting to establish an alternative theater

in London. For him Stoppard composed Dogg's *Our Pet*, which was produced in 1971 at the Almost Free Theater.

In 1972 Stoppard had presented *Jumpers*, which begins with circus acts and evolves into religious and moral philosophy (the study of knowledge). Although critics reacted warmly to the play, *Jumpers* did not enjoy the same praise that had greeted *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern*. Theater critic Stanley Kauffmann labeled it "fake, structurally and thematically," while another critic, John Simon, wrote that "there is even something arrogant about trying to convert the history of Western culture into a series of blackout sketches, which is very nearly what *Jumpers* is up to."

Two years later Stoppard produced his third major work, *Travesties*. It is based on the coincidence that Russian exile politician Vladimir Lenin (1870–1924), Irish novelist James Joyce (1882–1941), and the father of the French Dadaist movement in literature and art, Tristan Tzara (1896–1963), were all in Zurich, Switzerland, at times during World War I (1914–18; when German-led forces pushed for European domination). It is assumed that they never met in reality, but their interaction in Stoppard's play asks the question of what defines art. The author's conclusion seems to be that its sole function is to make the meaninglessness (complete emptiness) of life more bearable.

Later works

In 1977 Stoppard offered *Every Good Boy Deserves Favour*, a remarkable achievement performed for the first time at the Royal Festival Hall by the Royal Shakespeare Company and the one hundred-piece London Symphony Orchestra, conducted by Andre Previn (1929–).

Brought to the United States, it was presented at the Metropolitan Opera House in New York City with an eighty-one-piece orchestra.

Stoppard summed up his life's work as an attempt to "make serious points by flinging a custard pie around the stage for a couple of hours." Some of his serious points must have been heard in 1999, when he shared the Academy Award for Best Original Screenplay with Marc Norman for their work on the movie *Shakespeare in Love*. The movie also won the award for Best Picture of the year.

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HARRIET BEECHER STOWE

Born: June 14, 1811

Litchfield, Connecticut

Died: July 1, 1896

Hartford, Connecticut

American writer

The impact created in 1852 by Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin* made her one of the most widely known American women writers of the nineteenth century.

Childhood

Harriet Elizabeth "Hattie" Beecher was born in Litchfield, Connecticut, on June 14, 1811, into a family of powerful and very demanding individuals. Her father, Lyman Beecher, was a fiery, evangelical Calvinist (a strict religious discipline) who drove his six sons and two daughters along the straight and narrow path of devotion to God, to duty, and to himself. Much of her father's religious influence would show up in her writings as an adult. Her mother, Roxana Foote Beecher, died when she was four, leaving a legacy of quiet gentleness and a brother—the Beecher children's uncle Samuel Foote. Uncle Sam, a retired sea captain, brought a sense of romance and adventure into the household, as well as a measure of warm tolerance which might otherwise have been absent.

In October 1832 Harriet's family moved to Cincinnati, Ohio, where the elder Beecher became director of the Lane Theological Seminary and where his older daughter, Catherine, opened her Western Female Institute, a school in which Harriet taught. She began to study Latin and the romance languages and made her first attempts at writing fiction, although her sister did not approve.

In 1834 Harriet began writing for the *Western Monthly Magazine* and was awarded a fifty-dollar prize for her tale "A New England Sketch." Her writing during the next sixteen years was to be infrequent, for on January 6, 1836, she married Calvin Ellis Stowe, a pro-

fessor in the Lane Seminary. They had seven children during a period of financial hardship. At the same time she had the opportunity to visit the South, and she observed with particular attention the operation of the slave system there. The atmosphere at the Lane Seminary was that of extreme abolitionists (those fighting to end slavery). Harriet herself did not at that time pursue this position. In 1849 she published her first volume, *The Mayflower*, a slender book, but one that convinced her husband that she should seriously pursue a literary career.

Uncle Tom's Cabin

In 1850 Harriet's husband Calvin Stowe was called to a chair job at Bowdoin College in Brunswick, Maine, where they had their last child. She then set about writing *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, which first appeared in serial form in 1851 through 1852 in the *National Era*, a Washington, D.C., antislavery newspaper. The book was published in 1852 in a two-volume edition by the house of John P. Jewett and sold three hundred thousand copies in its first year—ten thousand in the first week. During the first five years of its publication, the book sold half a million copies in the United States alone.

Though Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* was received with wild attention, its reception was (except for the abolitionist press) almost completely in opposition. In the South each newspaper was a sea of fury, and in the North there were universal charges that the world of the slave had been misrepresented. The action of the book traces the passage of the slave Uncle Tom through the hands of three owners, each meant to represent a type of Southern figure. The first is a kind planter, the second a South-



Harriet Beecher Stowe.

Courtesy of the National Archives and
Records Administration.

ern gentleman, and the last the wicked Simon Legree, who causes the death of Uncle Tom. The fortunes of the slaves in the book curve downward, and the finally successful dash for freedom taken by George and Eliza makes up the high drama of the book. But the overall treatment of slave and master reveals something far more complex than abolitionist ideas: the high, clear style contains much that is warmly, even fiercely sympathetic to the world of the old South.

Stowe answered her critics in 1853 with *A Key to Uncle Tom's Cabin*, a book designed to document the facts of the novel, but she also responded to her success by traveling

widely, receiving praise in England and in Europe. In 1856 she published her novel *Dred: A Tale of the Great Dismal Swamp*. This, too, was a slave novel, and its reception was hardly less enthusiastic than that of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. In England alone, during the first month, over one hundred thousand copies were sold. Although Stowe then turned to instructive writings, producing a series of novels based on New England and drawing heavily on local color, her reputation for years to come was connected with the instructional power of her first two novels. Indeed, when she was introduced to President Abraham Lincoln (1809–1865) in 1862, he is said to have exclaimed, “So this is the little lady who started our big war!”

Later years

In 1869 Stowe again toured Europe, renewing an earlier friendship with Lord Byron's (1788–1824) widow. As a result, the novelist published *Lady Byron Vindicated* (1870), charging the dead poet with having violated his marriage vows by having a sexual relationship with his sister. Byron was a legend by this time, and the charges resulted in Stowe losing much of her loyal British audience. Undisturbed, however, she continued her series of novels, poems, and sketches, as well as her autobiography, never lacking a devoted and enthusiastic American audience.

The later years of Stowe's life were spent, in large part, in Florida, where she and her husband tried, with only moderate success, to manage the income from her literary activities. Stowe died in Hartford, Connecticut, on July 1, 1896.

Harriet Beecher Stowe's personality and her work are mint products of her culture.

They represent a special combination of rigid Calvinist discipline (fight against it though she tried), sentimental weakness for the romanticism of Sir Walter Scott (1771–1832) and Lord Byron, and a crusading sense of social and political responsibility.

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ANTONIO STRADIVARI

Born: c. 1644

Cremona, Italy

Died: December 18, 1737

Cremona, Italy

Italian violin maker

Italian violin maker Antonio Stradivari created instruments that are still considered the finest ever made. The new styles of violins and cellos that he developed were remarkable for their excellent tonal quality and became the basic design for all modern versions of the instruments.

Family of violin makers

There are no records of Antonio Stradivari's birth, but based on the documentation

of his age that accompanied his signature on some of the instruments he created late in his life, it is assumed that he was born in 1644. There is also little known about his youth. He was probably born in Cremona, Italy, the city where his family had been established for five centuries, and he was the son of Alessandro Stradivari. Cremona was a town that had been renowned for its master violin makers for nearly one hundred years. Its leading craftsman during Stradivari's early life was Niccolo Amati, who represented the third generation of his family to contribute to the development of the traditional violin style popular at the time. Stradivari was probably apprenticed (worked to learn a trade) to Amati by the early 1660s and under Amati's direction learned the craft of violin making.

Experimented with violin design

By 1666 Stradivari was producing instruments independently as well as continuing to work at his mentor's (an advisor and guide) shop, which he probably did until Amati's death in 1684. In 1667 he was married to Francesca Feraboschi and set up his own household and shop. The couple eventually had six children and two of their sons would follow in their father's footsteps as violin makers. In the decade or so before 1680 Stradivari created a wide variety of stringed instruments, including guitars, harps, lutes, and mandolins. He continued to follow Amati's basic design for violins, but during this time he began experimenting with improvements in tone and design.

The Stradivari family moved to a new house at No. 2, Piazza San Domenico in 1680, and the building would serve as the violin maker's home and workshop for the rest of his



Antonio Stradivari.

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life. Here he matured in his art and created his greatest works, most notably the violins that set the standard for perfection in the music world. In the 1680s he continued to develop his own style, moving away from Amati's design to create a more solid-looking violin made of new materials and finishes. The resulting instruments during this time created a more powerful sound than earlier violins, and musicians from outside Cremona began to seek out instruments from his workshop as his fame grew. Upon Amati's death in 1684, Stradivari was considered the city's greatest violin maker.

Despite Stradivari's considerable success with his designs, he continued to look for

ways to improve his violins. He succeeded in finding a deeper, fuller tone that was quite distinct from the lighter sounds of other Cremona instrument makers. Stradivari's wife died in 1698, and she was honored with a large funeral. In the summer of the following year, the craftsman married his second wife, Antonia-Maria Zambelli. He had five more children from this marriage, but none of them ever entered the instrument-making business.

Created finest works in "golden period"

The years from 1700 to 1720 were the greatest of Stradivari's career, and the era was often referred to as the craftsman's "golden period." It was during this time that he perfected his violin design and created his finest instruments. Not only was his design revolutionary, but the materials he used also helped to create his unique effects. He selected excellent wood, such as maple, for his violins and developed the orange-brown varnish that became a trademark of his work. His works from this period were so magnificent that some violins created at this time have developed individual identities and reputations. Some of the most famous include the 1704 "Betts" violin, now in the United States Library of Congress; the 1715 "Alard," which is considered the finest Stradivarius in existence; and the 1716 "Messiah," an instrument that Stradivari never sold and is now in the best condition of any of his surviving pieces.

After 1720 Stradivari continued to produce violins and other stringed instruments, but the number of items decreased through the years. While his work maintained a high level of quality, it began to show the effects of failing eyesight and a less steady hand. Stradivari continued producing instruments

on his own until his death at the age of ninety-three on December 18, 1737.

Stradivari's violins remain as some of the most sought-after instruments in the world. In May 2000 a Stradivari violin sold at a New York City auction for \$1.3 million. In September of that year experts laid to rest speculation that a Stradivari violin on display at the Ashmolean Museum in England was a forgery (a fake). The handcrafted 284 year-old Stradivari violin is considered the most valuable in the world, worth nearly \$15 million.

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JOHANN STRAUSS

Born: October 25, 1825

Vienna, Austria

Died: June 3, 1899

Vienna, Austria

Austrian composer

Johann Strauss, Vienna's greatest composer of light music, was known for his waltzes (dances) and operettas (light operas with songs and dances). His music seems to capture the height of elegance and refinement of the Hapsburg regime.

Early life

Johann Strauss Jr. was born on October 25, 1825, in Vienna, Austria. He was the eldest son of Johann Strauss Sr., a famous composer and conductor, known as "the father of the waltz." Although the elder Strauss wanted his sons to pursue business careers, the musical talents of Johann, Jr., quickly became evident, as he composed his first waltz at the age of six.

Strauss's mother secretly encouraged the musical education of her son behind his father's back. She arranged for one of the members of the father's orchestra to give the younger Johann lessons without his father's knowledge. When his father left the family in 1940, Strauss was relieved, for it meant that he could freely pursue his music without secrecy. At the age of nineteen he organized his own small orchestra, which performed some of his compositions in a restaurant in Hietzing. When his father died in 1849, Strauss combined his band with his father's and became the leader. He ultimately earned his own nickname, "the king of the waltz," or "the waltz king."

Touring

Strauss toured throughout Europe and England with great success and also went to America. He conducted huge concerts in Boston, Massachusetts, and New York City. He was the official conductor of the court



Johann Strauss.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

balls in Vienna from 1863 to 1870. During this time he composed his most famous waltzes, including *On the Beautiful Blue Danube* (1867), probably the best-known waltz ever written, *Artist's Life* (1867), *Tales from the Vienna Woods* (1868), and *Wine, Women, and Song* (1869).

In 1863 Jacques Offenbach (1819–1880), Paris's most popular composer of light operas, visited Vienna. The two composers met. The success of Offenbach's stage works encouraged Strauss to try writing operettas. He resigned as court conductor in 1870 to devote himself to this pursuit.

Operettas and waltzes

Three operettas are consistently popular and available for performance today. The finest of them, *Die Fledermaus* (1874; *The Bat*), is probably one of the greatest operettas ever written and a masterpiece of its kind. The lovely *Du und Du waltz* is made up of excerpts from this work. His two other most successful operettas were *A Night in Venice* (1883), from which he derived the music for the *Lagoon Waltz*, and *The Gypsy Baron* (1885), from which stems the *Treasure Waltz*.

Strauss continued to compose dance music, including the famous waltzes *Roses from the South* (1880) and *Voices of Spring* (1883). This last work, most often heard today as a purely instrumental composition, was originally conceived with a soprano solo as the composer's only independent vocal waltz.

Strauss wrote more than 150 waltzes, one hundred polkas, seventy quadrilles (square dances), mazurkas (folk dances from Poland), marches, and galops (French dances). His music combines considerable melodic invention, tremendous energy and brilliance with suavity and polish, and even at times an incredibly refined sensuality. He refined the waltz and raised it from its beginnings in the common beer halls and restaurants to a permanent place in aristocratic (having to do with the upper-class) ballrooms.

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IGOR STRAVINSKY

Born: June 17, 1882

Oranienbaum, Russia

Died: April 6, 1971

New York, New York

Russian-born American composer

The Russian-born American composer Igor Stravinsky identified himself as an “inventor of music.” The novelty, power, and elegance of his works won him worldwide admiration before he was thirty. Throughout his life he continued to surprise admirers with transformations of his style that stimulated controversy.

Beginnings in Russia

Igor Fedorovich Stravinsky was born at Oranienbaum near St. Petersburg, Russia, on June 17, 1882. Although his father was a star singer of the Imperial Opera, he expected the boy to become a bureaucrat. Igor finished a university law course before he made the decision to become a musician. By this time he was a good amateur pianist, an occasional professional accompanist (someone who plays along with a singer), an enthusiastic reader of avant-garde (non-traditional) scores

from France and Germany, and a connoisseur (expert) of Italian, French, and Russian opera.

The closest friend from Stravinsky's youth was Stephan Mitusov, the stepson of a prince. Mitusov translated the poems of the French poet Paul Verlaine (1884–1896) that Stravinsky set to music in 1910, and he arranged the libretto (text that accompanies a musical work) of Stravinsky's opera *The Nightingale*.

Early works

One of Stravinsky's classmates at the university was Vladimir Rimsky-Korsakov, the son of the composer Nikolai Rimsky-Korsakov (1844–1908). Stravinsky became an apprentice to the elder Rimsky-Korsakov. He did not enter classes at the conservatory but worked privately at his home.

For the sake of learning the most advanced craftsmanship from Rimsky-Korsakov, Stravinsky hid his independent taste, confident that he could exercise it later. His *Symphony in E-flat* (1905–1907), *Pastorale* (1907), and *Fireworks* (1908) demonstrate this. Stravinsky also wrote a funeral dirge (a dark, moody piece) for Rimsky-Korsakov, which he later recalled as the best of his early works. It was not published, and the manuscript was lost.

Scandal, glory, and misunderstanding in France

The great impresario (sponsor of entertainment) Sergei Diaghilev (1872–1929) heard Stravinsky's works in St. Petersburg and invited him to go to Paris, France, to write orchestral arrangements of Chopin's (1810–1849) works for ballets that he was



Igor Stravinsky.

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producing. Each scandalized (caused a debate among) the first audiences. The ballets were also unique and quickly became classics. The three ballets—*Firebird* (1910), *Petrushka* (1911), and *The Rite of Spring* (1912–1913)—together made Stravinsky's influence on all the arts enormous. They established him as a leader of a heroic musical generation alongside older composers such as Maurice Ravel (1875–1937) and Arnold Schoenberg (1874–1951).

World War I (1914–18; a war involving Germany, Turkey, and Austria-Hungary on one side, and Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy, Japan, and the United States on the

other) prevented Stravinsky from writing more for Diaghilev's company. The Russian Revolution (1917; two revolutions that first overthrew the monarchy then replaced it with the Communists) prevented Stravinsky from returning home from Paris. During the war he lived in Switzerland, where he collaborated with the poet C. F. Ramuz on a series of works based on folklore, including *The Soldier's Tale* (1918). This work deeply influenced Bertolt Brecht (1898–1956), Jean Cocteau (1889–1963), and other dramatists of the 1920s.

Another ballet, begun in 1914, and finally orchestrated in 1923, was the grandest achievement of these years: *Svadebka* (Les Noces, or The Little Wedding). In it the barbaric power of *The Rite of Spring* and the modern concision (shortness) of *The Soldier's Tale* met in a serious affirmation of love. Along with these very diverse major works were several smaller ones, for voices and for instruments in various combinations. Outstanding among these was a memorial to Claude Debussy (1862–1918), *Symphonies for Wind Instruments*.

A short comic opera, *Mavra* (1922), revealed a new lyricism (personal, emotional) in Stravinsky's complicated development. Though it was not a popular success—to Stravinsky's great disappointment—it influenced young composers including Darius Milhaud, Francis Poulenc, Kurt Weill, Sergei Prokofiev, and Dmitri Shostakovich.

Stravinsky's instrumental works of the 1920s included the Piano Concerto, the Octet for Winds, the Sonata, and the Sereenade for a piano solo. He produced an opera-oratorio (a long work usually without action or scenery), *Oedipus Rex*, in 1927, and a bal-

let, *Apollo*, in 1928. *The Fairy's Kiss* (1928), a ballet in tribute to Tchaikovsky, made use of themes from Tchaikovsky's songs and piano pieces. The death of Diaghilev in 1929 marked the end of a social focus for much of Stravinsky's work. Though Stravinsky became a French citizen in 1934, he was not able to win in France the recognition and security he needed.

The Symphony of Psalms (1930) for a chorus of men and boys and an orchestra without violins became the most widely known of all of Stravinsky's works after *The Rite of Spring*. At first its seriousness seemed at odds with the worldliness of the ballets. Later it was often recommended as a good starting point for acquaintance with Stravinsky's work as a whole. The theatrical works *Persephone* (1934) and *A Game of Cards* (1936) were as unique as the *Symphony of Psalms*. Stravinsky also wrote instrumental works on a grand scale: the *Violin Concerto* (1931), *Duo concertante for violin and piano* (1932), *Concerto for two pianos* (1935), *Concerto for chamber orchestra* ("Dumbarton Oaks," 1938), and *Symphony in C* (1940).

From 1942 to 1948 Stravinsky worked intermittently (on and off) on an uncommissioned (through his own initiative) setting of the Ordinary of the Roman Catholic Mass for chorus and winds. He had been spurred to this work by Mozart's Masses but not in any obvious way.

Renewals in America

When Stravinsky settled in the United States in 1939, he renewed his interest in popular music. He composed several short pieces, including *Ebony Concerto* (1946) for Woody Herman's band. His arrangement of

the "Star-Spangled Banner" (1944) was too severe to become a favorite. Several projects for film music were begun, though none was completed. A collaboration happier even than that with Diaghilev developed with the New York City Ballet under George Balanchine (1904–1983). The first fruit of this collaboration was *Orpheus* (1948). In 1948 Stravinsky undertook a full-length opera, *The Rake's Progress*. This was a fulfillment of his mature ethical and religious concerns. The music included some of Stravinsky's most melodious ideas.

The young conductor Robert Craft became Stravinsky's devoted aide while he worked on the opera, and he introduced Stravinsky to the work of Anton Webern. During the 1950s Stravinsky studied Webern and gradually absorbed new elements into his own still evolving, still very individual, style. This is evident in the Cantata on medieval English poems (1952), the Septet (1953), the Song (1954) with dirge canons in memory of Dylan Thomas (1914–1953), the oratorio *Canticum Sacrum* (1956) in honor of St. Mark, and the ballet *Agon* (1953–1957).

Stravinsky's works of the 1960s continued to demonstrate complex rhythms and sounds, as well as fascinating harmony and counterpoint. These included *Threni*, i.e., *Lamentations of Jeremiah* (1958), *A Sermon, a Narrative, and a Prayer* (1961), *The Flood* (1962), *Abraham and Isaac* (1963), *Requiem Canticles* (1966), the unaccompanied Anthem on stanzas from T. S. Eliot's (1888–1965) *Quartets*, *The Dove Descending Breaks the Air* (1962), the setting for voice and three clarinets of W. H. Auden's (1907–1973) *Elegy for JFK* (1964), and the song for voice and piano on Edward Lear's (1812–1888) poem *The Owl*

and the Pussycat (1968). Stravinsky's last major instrumental works were the *Movements for piano and orchestra* (1959) and the *Variations for orchestra* (1964), both of which were interpreted in ballets by Balanchine.

Stravinsky died on April 6, 1971, in New York City and was buried in Venice. His approach to musical composition was one of constant renewal. Rhythm was the most striking ingredient, and his novel rhythms were most widely imitated. His instrumentation and his ways of writing for voices were also distinctive and influential. His harmonies and forms were more elusive (difficult to grasp). He recognized melody as the "most essential" element.

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BARBRA STREISAND

Born: April 24, 1942

Brooklyn, New York

American actress, singer, songwriter, director, and producer

Barbra Streisand is an award-winning performer on stage, television, and in motion pictures, as well as a recording artist of popular music.

Younger years

Barbara Joan Streisand was born on April 24, 1942, in Brooklyn, New York, to Emanuel and Diana (Rosen) Streisand. Her father was a high school English teacher who died when Streisand was only fifteen months old. Her mother raised Barbara and her older brother, Sheldon, by working as a secretary in the New York City public school system. Her mother remarried in the late 1940s.

Streisand has described her childhood as painful. She was shy as a child, and often felt rejected by other children because her looks were unusual. She accentuated her uniqueness by wearing odd outfits and by avoiding school activities. She also felt rejected by her mother and her stepfather, who was a used-car salesman.

Streisand graduated from high school when she was sixteen years old and moved to Manhattan in New York City, where she shared an apartment with friends. At this time Streisand changed the spelling of her first name to "Barbra." She worked in several small plays during this time and also sang in nightclubs.

Broadway debut

Streisand was spotted by a Broadway producer and was hired to appear in the musical *I Can Get It for You Wholesale*. The production opened in March of 1962, ran for nine months, and produced a very well-received cast album. With the popularity of

her stage role, she was an almost overnight success.

Streisand was signed by Columbia Records and recorded *The Barbra Streisand Album* and *The Barbra Streisand Second Album* in 1963. Both albums were very successful. *The Barbra Streisand Album* won Streisand a Grammy for both album of the year and best female vocal. She followed up with *The Barbra Streisand Third Album*.

Streisand then took the role of the comedian and singer Fanny Brice in the Broadway production of *Funny Girl* in 1964. It was one of the most successful stage productions in the history of Broadway, and her performance in it would win her first of many Golden Globe Awards.

Streisand's next album, *People*, was one of her highest-selling albums and earned her a third Grammy Award.

Television success

Streisand next took aim at television. My *Name Is Barbra* aired in 1965 and its follow-up *Color Me Barbra* followed in 1966. She appeared in a total of ten more television specials between 1967 and 1986.

In 1968, at the young age of twenty-six, Streisand was the largest selling female singer of popular standards since Judy Garland (1922–1969).

Motion picture success

Barbra's success continued throughout 1968, as she continued to release albums and perform concerts. She repeated her role as Fanny Brice for the 1968 film version of *Funny Girl*. She won an Academy Award for



Barbra Streisand.

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best actress for this role. In 1969 Streisand appeared as Dolly Levi in the motion picture *Hello, Dolly!* At this time she received a Golden Globe award as Best Female World Film Favorite.

After the success of *Funny Girl*, Streisand began to concentrate more on motion pictures than on live performances. She appeared in *What's Up, Doc?* and *Up the Sandbox* in 1972. In 1973 she won critical acclaim for her work in *The Way We Were*, in which she starred opposite Robert Redford (1937–). She won another Golden Globe Award for this role.

Director and producer

Streisand starred in *For Pete's Sake* and *Funny Lady* before her 1976 movie *A Star Is Born*. The movie and her rendition of the theme song, "Evergreen," earned her a second Academy Award, two Grammy Awards, and three Golden Globe Awards. The film was one of the highest moneymakers that year. Some critics, however, believed Streisand was executing too much control, as she was listed in the credits as not only the star, executive producer, and cosongwriter, but also as the wardrobe consultant and the designer of "musical concepts."

Streisand would take yet another leap in her creative life when she decided to direct, produce, and star in *Yentl* in 1983. Filmed in Eastern Europe, *Yentl* was the story of a woman masquerading as a man to get orthodox Jewish religious education. The film earned more than \$35 million, but it would be four years before she appeared in another film.

Streisand's role in *Nuts* (1987), opposite Richard Dreyfuss (1947–), is the story of a woman who must go through a competency (able to function mentally in a normal way) hearing to determine if she is sane enough to stand trial for manslaughter. Most critics disliked the film, which Streisand produced, but some called it her best work ever. The dramatic role prepared her for the tension and emotion that she displayed in her next movie.

In *The Prince of Tides* (1991) Streisand, opposite Nick Nolte (1940–), not only starred, but directed and coproduced the film. The film was nominated for several Academy Awards, including the award for best picture. Streisand won a Golden Globe Award for directing.

Top of the charts

In addition to performing in motion pictures and on television throughout the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, Streisand continued to release albums. After *Funny Girl—Original Broadway Cast Recording* there would be over fifty Streisand albums released. Over the years she has recorded duets with performers Barry Gibb (1946–), Bryan Adams, Don Johnson, Neil Diamond (1941–), Kim Carnes, Johnny Mathis, and Michael Crawford.

After receiving a death threat in 1967, Streisand developed stage fright and stopped performing in public concerts. She commented to Susan Price of *Ladies Home Journal*, "You don't get over stage fright—you just don't perform." However, new friendships seemed to have a positive impact. In the early 1990s she began to grow closer to her mother and became friends with then-President Bill Clinton (1946–) and his wife Hillary (1947–).

Streisand did a world tour in 1994, starting in London, England, and ending in New York City. Her shows were some of the biggest moneymaking concerts of the year.

Streisand released *Higher Ground* in November of 1997 and it immediately became number one on the *Billboard* chart. It set a record for the greatest span of time between a performer's first and most recent number one albums—thirty-three years. The first single released from the album, "Tell Him," a duet with Celine Dion (1968–), was immediately a Top 40 hit and was nominated for a Grammy Award.

A lifetime of achievement

Streisand has recorded fifty-four albums and has collected an overwhelming thirty-

nine gold albums, twenty-five platinum albums, and twelve multi-platinum albums. She was the first person to win an Academy Award, an Emmy Award, a Grammy Award, and an Antoinette Perry (Tony) Award. She is also the only person to have won an Academy Award for both acting and songwriting.

Streisand married actor James Brolin in July 1998. The couple divides their time between homes in Malibu and Beverly Hills, California. She has given concerts to help benefit political candidates and charities that benefit social causes such as acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a disease that affects the body's immune system) research. The Streisand Foundation was established in 1992 to help advocate women's rights, civil liberties, and environmental protection.

President Clinton presented Streisand a National Medal of Arts in 2000. She gave what she said were her final live performances in Madison Square Garden in New York City that year.

Streisand won an Emmy in 2001 for her Fox TV special *Barbra Streisand: Timeless*. At the ceremony she sang "You'll Never Walk Alone" in tribute to the victims of the September 11, 2001, attacks on New York City and Washington, D.C.

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SUN YAT-SEN

Born: November 12, 1866

Choyhung, Kwangtung, China

Died: March 12, 1925

Peking, China

Chinese president and politician

Sun Yat-sen was the leader of China's republican revolution. He did much to inspire and organize the movement that overthrew the Manchu dynasty in 1911—a family of rulers that reigned over China for nearly three hundred years. Through the Kuomintang Party he paved the way for the eventual reunification of the country.

Childhood

Sun Yat-sen was born on November 12, 1866, into a peasant household in Choyhung in Kwangtung near the Portuguese colony of Macao. His father worked as a farmer, which had been his family's traditional occupation for many generations. His early education, like his birthplace, established him as a man of two worlds, China and the West. After a basic training in the Chinese classics in his village school, he was sent to Hawaii in 1879 to join his older brother. There he enrolled in a college where he studied Western science and Christianity.



Sun Yat-sen.

Upon graduation in 1882, he returned to his native village. After learning about Christianity, Sun had come to believe that the religious practices in the village where he grew up were nothing more than superstitions. He soon showed these changed beliefs by damaging one of the village idols and was banished from the village.

Though Sun returned home briefly to undergo an arranged marriage, he spent his late teens and early twenties studying in Hong Kong. He began his medical training in Canton, China, but in 1887 returned to Hong Kong and enrolled in the school of medicine. After graduation in June 1892, he went to Macao, where Portuguese authori-

ties refused to give him a license to practice medicine.

By the time Sun returned to Hong Kong in the spring of 1893, he had become more interested in politics than in medicine. Upset by the Manchu government's corruption, inefficiency, and inability to defend China against foreign powers, he wrote a letter to Li Hung-chang (1823–1901), one of China's most important reform leaders (social-improvement leaders), supporting a program of reform. Ignored, Sun returned to Hawaii to organize the Hsing-chung hui (Revive China Society). When war between China and Japan appeared to present possibilities for the overthrow of the Manchus, Sun returned to Hong Kong and reorganized the Hsing-chung hui as a revolutionary secret society. An uprising was planned in Canton in 1895 but was discovered, and several of Sun's men were executed. Having become a marked man, Sun fled to Japan.

Revolutionist

The pattern for Sun's career was established: unorganized plots, failures, execution of coconspirators, overseas wanderings, and financial backing for further coups (hostile takeovers). Sun grew a moustache, donned Western-style clothes, and, posing as a Japanese man, set out once again, first to Hawaii, then to San Francisco, and finally to England to visit a former school instructor. Before leaving England, he often visited the reading room of the British Museum, where he became acquainted with the writings of Karl Marx (1818–1893).

Sun returned to Japan in July 1905 to find the Chinese student community stirred to a pitch of patriotic excitement. Joined by

other revolutionists such as Huang Hsing and Sung Chiao-jen (1882–1913), Sun organized, and was elected director of, the T'ung-meng hui (Revolutionary Alliance). The T'ung-meng hui was carefully organized, with a sophisticated and highly educated membership core drawn from all over China.

By this time Sun's ideas had developed into the "Three People's Principles"—his writings on nationalism, democracy, and people's livelihood. When Sun returned from another fundraising trip in the fall of 1906, his student following in Japan numbered in the thousands. However, under pressure from the government in China, the Japanese government threw him out.

Sun's fortunes had reached a low point. The failure of a series of poorly planned and armed coups relying upon the scattered forces of secret societies and rebel bands had reduced the reputation of the T'ung-meng hui in Southeast Asia. However, Sun found that Chinese opinion in the United States was turning against his rivals. Sun visited the United States and was on a successful fundraising tour when he read in a newspaper that a successful revolt had occurred in the central Yangtze Valley city of Wuchang, China.

President of the Chinese Republic

By the time Sun arrived back in China on Christmas Day 1911, rebellion had spread through the Yangtze Valley. An uneasy welcome greeted him, and in Nanking, China, revolutionaries from fourteen provinces elected him president of a provisional (temporary) government. On January 1, 1912, Sun Yat-sen proclaimed the establishment of the Republic of China.

The next year a bitter power struggle developed in the Chinese government. On March 20, 1913, Yüan's agents assassinated Sung Chiao-jen at the Shanghai, China, railroad station. Sun hurried back and demanded that those responsible be brought to justice. Yüan resisted, sparking the so-called second revolution. Yüan removed Sun from office and on September 15, 1913, ordered his arrest. By early December, Sun was once again a political refugee (one who is forced to flee) in Japan.

Preparations for a comeback

Sun now began to work for the overthrow of Yüan. However, Yüan was undone by his own mistakes rather than by Sun's plots. His attempt to replace the republic with a monarchy (rule by one) touched off revolts in southwestern China followed by uprisings of Sun's followers in several other provinces. Sun returned to Shanghai in April 1916, two months before Yüan's death.

Following a fruitless quest for Japanese assistance, Sun established a home in Shanghai. There he wrote two of the three treatises (formal writings) later incorporated into his *Chien-kuo fang-lueh* (Principles of National Reconstruction). In the first part, *Social Reconstruction*, completed in February 1917, Sun attributed the failure of democracy (rule by the people) in China to the people's lack of practice and application. The second treatise, *Psychological Reconstruction*, argued that popular acceptance of his program had been obstructed by acceptance of the old saying "Knowledge is difficult, action is easy." The third part, *Material Reconstruction*, constituted a master plan for the industrialization of China to be financed by lavish investments from abroad.

Once again Sun reorganized his party, this time as the Chinese Kuomintang. He also kept a hand in the political world in Canton, China. When the city was occupied on October 26, 1920, by Ch'en Chiung-ming and other supporters, Sun named Ch'en governor of Kwangtung, China. In April 1921 the Canton Parliament established a new government to rival the Peking government and elected Sun president.

After driving Ch'en from Peking, Sun resumed preparation for the northern expedition, but Ch'en recaptured Canton and forced Sun to flee to a gunboat in the Pearl River. There, in the company of a young military aide named Chiang Kai-shek (1887–1975), Sun tried unsuccessfully to engineer a comeback.

Communist alliance

Never one to be discouraged by failure, Sun returned to Shanghai and continued his plans to retake Canton through alliances with northern warlords (military commanders of independent armies). About this time, Sun accepted support from the Soviet Union, a mark of his disappointment with the Western powers and Japan and his need for political, military, and financial aid. Part of the agreement provided for the admission of individual Chinese Communists into the Kuomintang. On January 26, 1923, the Soviet Union guaranteed its support for the reunification of China. This would give Sun the muscle he needed.

Meanwhile Sun's military allies were paving the way for a return to Canton. By the middle of February 1923 Sun was back again as head of a military government. In January 1924 the first National Congress of the Kuomintang approved a new constitution (a formal document which sets the standards

for a government), which remodeled the party along Soviet lines. At the top of the party was the Central Executive Committee with bureaus in charge of propaganda (using literature and the media to influence the masses), workers, peasants, youth, women, investigation, and military affairs. Sun's *Three People's Principles* were restated to emphasize anti-imperialism (domination by a foreign power) and the leading role of the party.

Even the most disciplined party, Sun realized, would be ineffective without a military arm. To replace the unreliable warlord armies, Sun chose the Soviet model of a party army. The Soviets agreed to help establish a military academy, and a mission headed by Chiang kai-shek was sent to the Soviet Union to secure assistance.

Final days in Peking

However, the lure of warlord alliances remained strong. In response to an invitation from Chang Tso-lin (1873–1928) and Tuan Ch'i-jui (1865–1936), Sun set out for Peking to discuss the future of China. However, negotiations with Tuan Ch'i-jui soon collapsed. This proved to be the last time that Sun would be disappointed by his allies. Following several months of deteriorating health, in late 1924, Sun found that he had incurable cancer.

Sun passed his final days by signing the pithy "political testament," urging his followers to hold true to his goals in carrying the revolution through to victory. He also signed a highly controversial valedictory (farewell address) to the Soviet Union to reaffirm the alliance against Western domination. The following day, March 12, 1925, Sun died in Peking, China. He was given a state funeral under orders of Tuan Ch'i-jui.

Though the guiding spirit of the Chinese revolution, Sun was widely criticized during his lifetime. After his death he became the object of a cult (a following) that elevated him to a sacred position.

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reader's guide

U•X•L Encyclopedia of World Biography features 750 biographies of notable historic and contemporary figures from around the world. Chosen from American history, world history, literature, science and math, arts and entertainment, and the social sciences, the entries focus on the people studied most often in middle school and high school, as identified by teachers and media specialists.

The biographies are arranged alphabetically across ten volumes. The two- to four-page entries cover the early lives, influences, and careers of notable men and women of diverse fields and ethnic groups. Each essay includes birth and death information in the header and concludes with a list of sources

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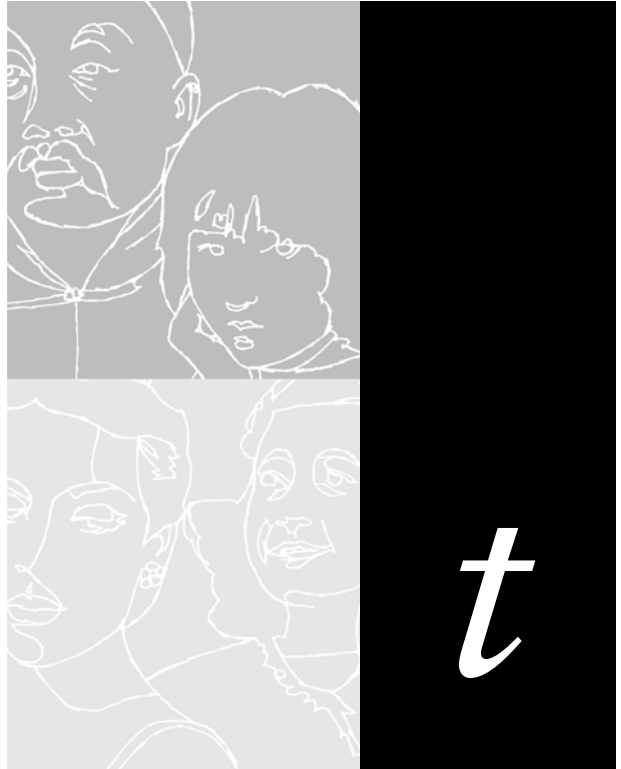
Special thanks

Much appreciation goes to Mary Alice Anderson, media specialist at Winona Middle School in Winona, Minnesota, and Nina Levine, library media specialist at Blue Mountain Middle School in Cortlandt Manor, New York, for their assistance in developing the entry list. Many thanks also go to the following people for their important editorial contri-

butions: Taryn Benbow-Pfalzgraf (proofreading), Jodi Essey-Stapleton (copyediting and proofing), Margaret Haerens (proofreading), Courtney Mroch (copyediting), and Theresa Murray (copyediting and indexing). Special gratitude goes to Linda Mahoney at LM Design for her excellent typesetting work and her flexible attitude.

Comments and suggestions

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MARIA TALLCHIEF

Born: January 24, 1925

Fairfax, Oklahoma

Native American dancer and choreographer

Maria Tallchief is a world-renowned ballerina and one of the premiere (first-ranking) American ballerinas of all time. She was the first American to dance at the Paris Opera and has danced with the Paris Opera Ballet, the Ballet Russe, and the Balanchine Ballet Society, later renamed the New York City Ballet.

Early years

Maria Tallchief was born in Fairfax, Oklahoma, on January 24, 1925. Fairfax is located on the Osage Indian Reservation. Her grandfather had helped negotiate the treaty (agreement) that established the reservation and kept the tribe's right to own any minerals found on the land. When oil was discovered on the reservation, the Osage became the wealthiest Native American tribe in the country.

Maria's father, Alexander Joseph Tall Chief, an Osage Indian, was a wealthy real estate executive. Her mother, Ruth Mary Porter Tall Chief, was of Scottish and Irish ancestry. Eliza Big Heart, her grandmother, frequently took young Maria and her sister, Marjorie, to the ceremonial tribal dances.



Maria Tallchief.

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Tallchief began ballet and piano lessons at the age of three and frequently performed before civic organizations in Osage County. By age eight she and her sister had exhausted the training resources in Oklahoma, and the family moved to Beverly Hills, California. Although her mother hoped she would be a concert pianist, Tallchief devoted more and more of her time to dance. At one of her performances she devoted half of her program to the piano and half to dance.

By age twelve Tallchief was studying under Madame Nijinska, sister of the great Russian ballet dancer Vaslav Nijinsky (1890–1950), and

David Lichine, a student of the renowned Russian ballerina Anna Pavlova (1882–1931).

When she was fifteen years old, Tallchief danced her first solo performance at the Hollywood Bowl in a number choreographed by Nijinska. Following her graduation from Beverly Hills High School in 1942, it was apparent that ballet would be Tallchief's life. Instead of college she joined the Ballet Russe de Monte Carlo, a highly acclaimed Russian ballet troupe based in New York City. She made her debut with the company in Canada. It was at this time that Marie Elizabeth Tall Chief changed her name to Maria Tallchief to give herself a more European image.

Early professional career

Initially Tallchief was treated with skepticism (uncertainty) by members of the Russian troupe, who were unwilling to acknowledge the Native American's greatness. When choreographer George Balanchine (1904–1983) took control of the company, however, he recognized Tallchief's talent. He selected her for the understudy role in *The Song of Norway*. Under Balanchine, Tallchief's reputation grew, and she was eventually given the title of ballerina. During this time, Tallchief married Balanchine. When he moved to Paris, France, she went with him.

As had happened with the Ballet Russe, Tallchief was initially treated as an inferior in Paris. Her debut at the Paris Opera was the first ever for any American ballerina, and Tallchief's talent quickly won French audiences over. She later became the first American to dance with the Paris Opera Ballet at the Bolshoi Theatre in Moscow, Russia. She quickly became the ranking soloist and soon after joined the Balanchine Ballet Society, now called the New York City Ballet.

Later career

At the New York City Ballet Tallchief became recognized as one of the greatest dancers in the world. When she became the prima (lead) ballerina, she was the first American dancer to achieve this title. She held that title for eighteen years, until she retired.

Tallchief left the New York City Ballet in 1966. She went on to found the Chicago City Ballet in 1981. She also served as the artistic director of that company through 1987. Tallchief had formed a strong relationship with the Chicago art community when she danced in a production of *Orfeo ed Euridice* with the Lyric Opera of Chicago in 1962.

Tallchief was presented with a National Medal of the Arts award by the National Endowment for the Arts in 1999.

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AMY TAN

Born: February 19, 1952
Oakland, California
Asian American writer

Amy Tan is known for her lyrically written (using flowing, melodic language) tales of emotional conflict between Chinese American mothers and daughters separated by generational and cultural differences.

Early life

Amy Ruth Tan was born in Oakland, California, on February 19, 1952. Her father was a Chinese-born Baptist minister; her mother was the daughter of an upper-class family in Shanghai, China. Throughout much of her childhood, Tan struggled with her parent's desire to hold onto Chinese traditions and her own longings to become more Americanized (integrated with American ideals). Her parents wanted Tan to become a neurosurgeon (a doctor who performs surgery on the brain), while she wanted to become a fiction writer. While still in her teens, Tan experienced the loss of both her father and her sixteen-year-old brother to brain tumors and learned that two sisters from her mother's first marriage in China were still alive (one of several autobiographical elements she would later incorporate into her fiction).

Tan majored in English at San Jose State, in California, in the early 1970s rather than fulfill her mother's expectations of becoming a surgeon. After graduate work at the University of California, Berkeley, she began a career as a technical writer (a person who writes about mechanical and computer issues). As a release from the demands of her technical writing career, she turned to fiction writing, having gained inspiration from her reading of Louise Erdrich's novel of Native American family life, *Love Medicine*.



Amy Tan.

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First novels

Despite Tan's achievements, her literary career was not planned; in fact, she first began writing fiction as a form of therapy. Considered a workaholic by her friends, Tan had been working ninety hours per week as a freelance technical writer. She became dissatisfied with her work life, however, and hoped to rid herself of her workaholic tendencies through psychological counseling. But when her therapist fell asleep several times during her counseling sessions, Tan quit and decided to cut back her working hours by jumping into jazz piano lessons and writing fiction instead. Tan's first literary efforts were

stories, one of which secured her a position in the Squaw Valley Community of Writers, a fiction writers' workshop. Tan's hobby soon developed into a new career when her first novel, *The Joy Luck Club*, was published in 1989.

Tan's *The Joy Luck Club*, received the Commonwealth Club gold award for fiction and the American Library Association's best book for young adults award in 1989 and stayed on the *New York Times's* best-seller list for nine months. In 1993, Tan produced and coauthored the screenplay (script for a movie) for *The Joy Luck Club* which was made into a critically acclaimed film. It was adapted for the stage in a production directed by Tisa Chang for Pan Asian Repertory in 1999. Tan's second novel, *The Kitchen God's Wife*, was published in 1991 followed by the children's books *The Moon Lady* (1992) and *The Chinese Siamese Cat* (1994). The year 2001 saw the release of yet another successful novel, *The Bonesetter's Daughter*.

Tan's *The Joy Luck Club* is made up of sixteen stories told by four Chinese immigrant women and their four American-born daughters, linked together by the narrative of June, whose mother had founded a women's social club in China. Nearly forty years later, June's mother has died. The surviving members, the "aunties," recruit June to replace her mother, then send her to China to meet her half-sisters and inform them of the mother's death. When June expresses doubts about her ability to execute this assignment, the older women respond with disappointment. June then realizes the women rightly suspect that she, and their own daughters, know little of the women's lives and the strength and hope they wished to give the next generation.

Throughout the novel, the various mothers and daughters attempt to demonstrate their own concerns about the past and the present and about themselves and their relations.

Critical praise

Amy Tan's novels, *The Joy Luck Club* and *The Kitchen God's Wife*, were enthusiastically received by critics as well as the book-buying public. Focusing on the lives of Chinese American women, Tan's books introduce characters who are uncertain as she once was about their Chinese background. Tan remarked in a *Bestsellers* interview that though she once tried to distance herself from her ethnicity, writing *The Joy Luck Club* helped her discover "how very Chinese I was. And how much had stayed with me that I had tried to deny." Upon *The Joy Luck Club's* release, Tan quickly became known as a gifted storyteller, a reputation she upheld with the publication of *The Kitchen God's Wife*.

Tan's *The Joy Luck Club* was praised as a thought-provoking, engaging novel. In *Quill and Quire*, Denise Chong wrote: "These moving and powerful stories share the irony, pain, and sorrow of the imperfect ways in which mothers and daughters love each other. Tan's vision is courageous and insightful." In her review for the *Toronto Globe and Mail*, Nancy Wigston declared that Tan's literary debut "is that rare find, a first novel that you keep thinking about, keep telling your friends about long after you've finished reading it." Some critics were particularly impressed with Tan's ear for authentic dialogue. Carolyn See, for instance, wrote in the *Los Angeles Times Book Review* that Tan ranks among the "magicians of language."

Tan's *The Kitchen God's Wife* deals with a young woman in California who realizes a

greater understanding of her mother's Chinese background. A generation gap exists between the two heroines: Mother Winnie has only awkwardly adapted to the relatively freewheeling ways of American—particularly Californian—life; daughter Pearl, on the other hand, is more comfortable in a world of sports and fast food than she is when listening, at least initially, to her mother's recollections of her own difficult life in China. As Winnie recounts the secrets of her past, including her mother's mysterious disappearance, her marriage to a psychotic and brutal man, the deaths of her first three children, and her journey to the United States in 1949, Pearl is able to view her mother in a new light and gathers the courage to reveal a secret of her own.

Critics hailed Tan's *The Kitchen God's Wife*, admiring its touching and bittersweet humor. Sabine Durrant, writing in the *London Times*, called the book "gripping" and "enchanting," and Charles Foran, in his review for the *Toronto Globe and Mail*, proclaimed Tan's work "a fine novel" of "exuberant storytelling and rich drama." In a *Washington Post Book World* review, Wendy Law-Yone asserted that Tan exceeded the expectations raised by her first book, declaring that "*The Kitchen God's Wife* is bigger, bolder and, I have to say, better" than *The Joy Luck Club*.

Tan continues to write. In 2001 her novel *The Bonesetter's Daughter* was released to much of the same praise as her earlier books.

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Kramer, Barbara. *Amy Tan, Author of The Joy Luck Club*. Springfield, NJ: Enslow, 1996.

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ELIZABETH TAYLOR

Born: February 27, 1932
London, England
American actress

Elizabeth Taylor is one of film's most famous women, having starred in over fifty films and having won two Academy Awards. She also attracted attention because of her eight marriages and her devotion to raising money for research to fight acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; a virus that destroys the body's ability to fight off infection).

Began acting at nine

Elizabeth Rosemond Taylor was born in London, England, on February 27, 1932, to American parents Francis and Sara Taylor. Her father was a successful art dealer who had his own gallery in London. Her mother was an actress who had been successful before marriage under the stage name Sara Sothorn. Taylor has an older brother, Howard, who was born two years earlier. In 1939 the family moved to Los Angeles, California, where Taylor was encouraged and coached by her mother to seek work in the motion picture industry. Taylor was signed by Universal in 1941 for \$200 a week.

Success and special treatment

In 1942 Taylor signed a contract with Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, the biggest and best studio of the time, and landed a part in *Lassie Come Home*. In 1943 she was cast in *National Velvet*, the story of a young woman who wins a horse in the lottery and rides it in England's Grand National Steeplechase. Taylor was so determined to play the role that she exercised and dieted for four months. During filming she was thrown from a horse and suffered a broken back, but she forced herself to finish the project. *National Velvet* became both a critical and commercial success.

Taylor loved her work, the costumes, the makeup, and the attention. Columnist Hedda Hopper, a friend of Taylor's mother, declared that at fifteen Elizabeth was the most beautiful woman in the world. Making films such as *Little Women*, *Father of the Bride*, *Cynthia*, and *A Place in the Sun*, Taylor began to gain a reputation as a moody actress who demanded special treatment. In May 1950 she married Conrad N. Hilton Jr., whose family owned a chain of hotels, but the union lasted less than a year. After divorcing Hilton, she married British actor Michael Wilding in February 1952. They had two sons.

Between 1952 and 1956 Elizabeth Taylor played in many romantic films that did not demand great acting talent. In 1956 she played opposite James Dean (1931–1955) in *Giant*, followed by the powerful *Raintree County* (1957), for which she was nominated (put forward for consideration) for an Academy Award for the first time. In *Suddenly Last Summer* (1959) she received five hundred thousand dollars (the most ever earned by an actress for eight weeks of work) and another Academy Award nomination.

Movies and marriages

In 1956 Taylor and Wilding separated, and in February 1957 she married producer Mike Todd. Taylor was shaken by James Dean's death and her friend Montgomery Clift's (1920–1966) near-fatal automobile accident, which occurred when the actor was driving home from a party at her house. In March 1958 her husband Mike Todd died in a plane crash. Taylor began trying to ease her grief with pills and alcohol. Her performance in the film *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof* (1958) won her an Academy Award nomination and led to a relationship with singer Eddie Fisher, who had been Mike Todd's best man at their wedding. Soon after his divorce from actress Debbie Reynolds (1932–), who had been Taylor's matron of honor, Taylor and Fisher were married in May 1959.

In 1960 Taylor turned in one of her best performances in *Butterfield 8*, for which she won an Oscar as Best Actress. A few months later, in 1961, she signed with 20th Century-Fox for \$1 million for the film *Cleopatra*, also starring Richard Burton (1925–1984). The two stars were soon romancing off the set as well as on, leading to criticism from the Vatican, which referred to the two stars as "adult children." Upset and confused over her tangled relationships, Taylor attempted suicide in early 1962. By 1964, however, she and Burton had each divorced their spouses and were married.

Taylor won another Oscar for her performance alongside Burton in *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* (1966). Over a dozen films followed, as did a divorce from Burton. The couple remarried in October 1975 before divorcing for the second and final time in July 1976. In 1978 Taylor married for the seventh time. Her new husband was John Warner, a candi-



Elizabeth Taylor.

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date for the U.S. Senate in Virginia. According to one biographer, Taylor broke "all the rules for being a good political wife." She had also gained considerable weight, and the press attacked her about it. After Warner was elected, he and Taylor divorced.

Pain and loss

Taylor then moved to Broadway for the first time in a well-received staging of *The Little Foxes*. She and Richard Burton appeared together in a 1983 production of *Private Lives*, but critics felt that the dramatic spark between them was no longer there. In 1983 Taylor checked into the Betty Ford Clinic in California

for treatment for her alcohol addiction. The death of Burton in August 1984, however, combined with back pain and general ill health, led to her return to drinking and drugs.

Taylor was also alarmed as a number of her friends, including actor Rock Hudson (1925–1985) and fashion designer Halston, became ill with AIDS. Taylor began to speak out on behalf of AIDS research. In 1985 she became the cofounder and chair of the American Foundation for AIDS Research (AmFAR). Her “Commitment to Life” benefit of that year was the first major AIDS research fundraiser staged by the Hollywood community.

Taylor returned to the Betty Ford Clinic in 1988, where she met a forty-year old construction worker named Larry Fortensky. Their friendship continued outside the clinic and they married in 1991. In 1993 the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences honored Taylor with a special humanitarian (supporter of human welfare) award for her years with AmFAR. In 1994 Taylor returned to the movies after a fourteen-year absence for a small part in *The Flintstones*. She then announced her retirement from films. Her marriage to Fortensky ended in 1996.

Later years

In February 1997 Taylor participated in the ABC-TV (American Broadcasting Company-television) special, “Happy Birthday Elizabeth—A Celebration of Life,” which marked her sixty-fifth birthday and raised money for AIDS research. The following day she underwent an operation to remove a two-inch tumor from her brain. She also underwent operations on her hip and broke her back in 1998. In the summer of 1999 she fell and suffered a fracture to her spine.

In May 2000 Taylor was dubbed Dame Commander of the Order of the British Empire, the female version of a knight. Queen Elizabeth (1926–) presented her with the award for services to the entertainment industry and to charity. That same year she was given the Marian Anderson Award for her efforts on behalf of the AIDS community. She also returned to the hospital briefly after coming down with pneumonia. Taylor is a beautiful, much-beloved woman with a larger-than-life presence, both on and off the screen.

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PETER ILYICH TCHAIKOVSKY

Born: May 7, 1840

Votkinsk, Russia

Died: November 6, 1893

St. Petersburg, Russia

Russian composer

Peter Ilyich Tchaikovsky was one of the most loved of Russian composers. His music is famous for its strong emotion, and his technical skill and strict work habits helped guarantee its lasting appeal.

Early years

Born on May 7, 1840, in Votkinsk in the Vyatka district of Russia, Peter Ilyich Tchaikovsky was the son of a successful engineer. Peter and his brothers and sister received a sound education from their French governess. His parents sometimes took him to concerts, and after one such evening he complained that he could not fall asleep because of the music stuck in his head. He was devoted to his mother, and at age four he and his sister composed a song for her. Her death when he was fourteen was a huge blow to him.

Tchaikovsky attended law school in St. Petersburg, Russia, and, while studying law and government, he took music lessons, including some composing, from Gabriel Lomakin. Tchaikovsky graduated at the age of nineteen and took a job as a bureau clerk. He worked hard, but he hated the job; by this time he was totally absorbed by music. He soon met the Rubinstein brothers, Anton (1829–1894) and Nikolai (1835–1881), both of whom were composers. Anton was a pianist second only to Franz Liszt (1811–1886) in technical brilliance and fame. In 1862 Anton opened Russia's first conservatory (a school that focuses on teaching the fine arts), under the sponsorship of the Imperial Russian Music Society (IRMS), in St. Petersburg. Tchaikovsky was its first composition student.

Early works

Tchaikovsky's early works were well made but not memorable. Anton Rubinstein was demanding and critical, and when Tchaikovsky graduated two years later he was still somewhat frightened by Anton's harshness. In 1866 Nikolai Rubinstein invited Tchaikovsky to Moscow, Russia, to live with him and serve as professor of composition at the Moscow Conservatory, which he had just established. Tchaikovsky's father was now in financial (money-related) trouble, and the composer had to support himself on his meager earnings from the conservatory. The musical poems *Fatum* and *Romeo and Juliet* that he wrote in 1869 were the first works to show the style he became famous for. *Romeo and Juliet* was redone with Mily Balakirev's (1837–1910) help in 1870 and again in 1879.

During the 1870s and later, there was considerable communication between Tchaikovsky and the Rubinsteins on the one hand and the members of the "Mighty Five" Russian composers—Balakirev, Aleksandr Borodin (1834–1887), Modest Mussorgsky (1839–1881), Nicolai Rimsky-Korsakov (1844–1908), and César Cui—on the other. It was widely reported that the two groups did not get along, but this was not true. Tchaikovsky worked as an all-around musician in the early 1870s, and, as was expected of a representative of the IRMS, he taught, composed, wrote critical essays, and conducted (although he was not a great conductor). In 1875 he composed what is perhaps his most universally known and loved work, the Piano Concerto No. 1. Anton Rubinstein mocked the piece, although he himself often performed it years later as a concert pianist. Also popular was Tchaikovsky's ballet *Swan Lake* (1876). It is the most success-



Peter Ilyich Tchaikovsky.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

ful ballet ever written if measured in terms of broad audience appeal.

A disastrous marriage

In 1877 Tchaikovsky married the twenty-eight-year-old Antonina Miliukova, his student at the conservatory. It has been suggested that she reminded him of Tatiana, a character in his opera *Eugene Onegin*. His unfortunate wife, who became mentally ill and died in 1917, not only suffered rejection by her husband but also the vicious criticism of his brother Modeste Tchaikovsky. Modeste, like Peter, was a misogynist (one who hates women). Modeste attacked Antonina in

a biography he wrote about Peter. This was an attempt to shield Peter and mask his weaknesses. Later biographers repeated and even exaggerated Modeste's claim that Antonina was cheap and high-strung.

Tchaikovsky never stuck around to find out what she was like. Within a few weeks he had fled Moscow alone for an extended stay abroad. He made arrangements through his relatives to never see his wife again. In his correspondence of this period—indeed through a large part of his career—he was often morbid (gloomy) about his wife, money, his friends, even his music and himself. He often spoke of suicide. This, too, has been reported widely by Tchaikovsky's many biographers. Even during his life critics treated him unkindly because of his open, emotional music. But he never sought to change his style, though he was dissatisfied at one time or another with most of his works. He also never stopped composing.

Arrangement with Madame von Meck

Tchaikovsky became involved in another important relationship at about the same time as his marriage. Through third parties an unusual but helpful arrangement with the immensely wealthy Nadezhda von Meck was made. She was attracted by his music and the possibility of supporting his creative work, and he was interested in her money and what it could provide him. For thirteen years she supported him at a base rate of six thousand rubles a year, plus whatever "bonuses" he could manage to get out of her. He was free to quit the conservatory, and he began a series of travels and stays abroad.

Von Meck and Tchaikovsky purposely never met, except for one or two accidental

encounters. In their correspondence Tchaikovsky discusses his music thoughtfully; in letters to his family he complains about her cheapness. He dedicated his Fourth Symphony (1877) to her. Tchaikovsky finished *Eugene Onegin* in 1879. It is his only opera generally performed outside the Soviet Union. Other works of this period are the Violin Concerto (1881), the Fifth Symphony (1888), and the ballet *Sleeping Beauty* (1889).

Later years

Tchaikovsky's fame and his activity now extended to all of Europe and America. To rest from his public appearances he chose a country retreat in Klin near Moscow. From this he became known as the "Hermit of Klin," although he was never a hermit. In 1890 he finished the opera *Queen of Spades*, based on a story by the Russian poet Aleksandr Pushkin (1799–1837). Tchaikovsky was happy when, despite the criticism of "experts," the opera was well received. In late 1890 Von Meck cut him off. He had reached the point where he no longer depended on her money, but he was still upset by her rejection. Even his brother Modeste expressed surprise at his anger. Tchaikovsky had an immensely successful tour in the United States in 1891.

The Sixth Symphony was first heard in October 1893, with the composer conducting. This work, named at Modeste's suggestion *Pathétique*, was poorly received—very likely because of Tchaikovsky's conducting. Tchaikovsky never knew of its eventual astonishing success, for he contracted cholera (a disease of the small intestine) and died, still complaining about Von Meck, on November 6, 1893.

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ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON

Born: August 6, 1809

Somersby, England

Died: October 6, 1892

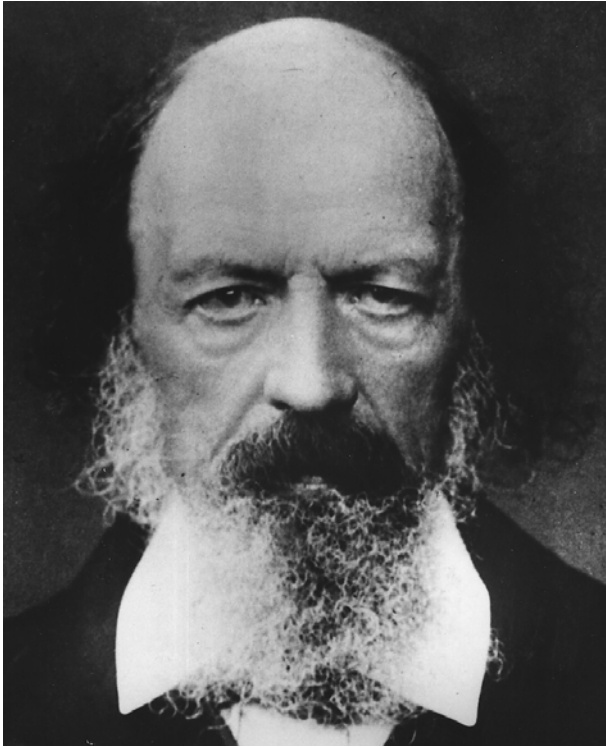
Haslemere, England

English poet

Alfred, Lord Tennyson was regarded by many in his generation as the greatest poet of Victorian England. A superb craftsman in verse, he wrote poetry that ranged from confident assertion to black despair.

His early days

Alfred, Lord Tennyson was born on August 6, 1809, in the village of Somersby, Lincolnshire, England. His parents were the Reverend George Clayton Tennyson and Elizabeth Fytche Tennyson. He had seven brothers and four sisters. His father was an educated man, but was relatively poor. He was a country clergyman (church official). Though he was not very wealthy, he did have a large library. Alfred read widely in this library, and he learned to love reading, especially poetry,



Alfred, Lord Tennyson.

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at an early age.

As Tennyson's father grew older, he became more passionate and melancholy (sad). He began drinking heavily, suffered from lapses of memory, and once even tried to kill his eldest son. Misfortune, not surprisingly, haunted the whole Tennyson family. The year he died, the elder Tennyson said of his children, "They are all strangely brought up."

Early poetry and Cambridge

Tennyson began writing poetry as a child. At twelve he wrote a six-thousand-line epic (a long poem about a real or fictional

heroic figure) in imitation of Sir Walter Scott (1771–1832). Other models were Lord Byron (1788–1824), and Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792–1822). In 1827 there appeared a small volume entitled *Poems by Two Brothers*. The book, despite its title, included poems by three of the Tennyson brothers, a little less than half of them probably by Alfred. That same year he entered Trinity College, Cambridge University. Tennyson's undergraduate days were a time of intellectual and political turmoil in England. He belonged to a group called the Apostles. The institutions of church and state were being challenged, and the Apostles debated these issues. He also took up the cause of rebels in Spain.

Those who knew Tennyson as a university student were impressed by his commanding physical presence and his youthful literary achievements. In 1831 his father died, and Tennyson left the university without taking a degree.

Love of beauty and obligation to society

In the volume entitled *Poems*, which Tennyson published in 1832, a recurring theme is the conflict between a selfish love of beauty and the obligation to serve society. The collection includes "The Lady of Shalott," a narrative set in the England of King Arthur (a mythical king of England). Tennyson was saddened by some of the reviews of this book and by the death of a close friend. For the next ten years he did not publish anything. In 1840 he invested what money he had inherited in a plan to make woodworking machinery. By 1843 he had lost his small inheritance.

Turning point

Poems, Two Volumes (1842) signaled a change in Tennyson's fortunes. It contained one of the several poems that would eventually make up the *Idylls of the King*. Other poems in this collection are "Ulysses," a dramatic monologue (speech given by one person) in which the aging king urges his companions to undertake a final heroic journey. In "The Two Voices" he wrote of an interior debate between the wish to die and the will to live. *Poems, Two Volumes* was well received. The prime minister (head of government) of England, who was particularly impressed by "Ulysses," awarded Tennyson a pension (a fixed annual amount of money) that guaranteed him two hundred pounds a year.

In Memoriam

The greatest year of Tennyson's life was 1850. On June 1 he published *In Memoriam*, the long elegy (an artistic piece expressing sadness over someone's death) inspired by the death of his friend Arthur Hallam. Less than two weeks later he married Emily Sellwood, with whom he had fallen in love fourteen years before. Finally, in November, he was appointed poet laureate (official poet of a country) to succeed William Wordsworth (1770–1850). Tennyson's years of uncertainty and financial insecurity were over. He became the highly regarded poetic spokesman of his age.

In Memoriam is a series of 129 lyrics (short poems) of varying length, all composed in the same form. The lyrics may be read individually, rather like the entries in a journal, but the poem has an overall organization. It moves from grief through acceptance to joy. The poem combines private feeling with a confusion over the future of

Christianity, which was a feeling many of Tennyson's age group shared.

Although Tennyson was now settled and prosperous, his next book, *Maud and Other Poems* (1855), is notable for another study in sadness. Tennyson described the poem as a "little Hamlet," a reference to the play written by William Shakespeare (1564–1616). It almost certainly expresses some of the author's youthful anxieties as recollected in his middle age. Of the other poems in the 1855 volume, the best-known are "The Charge of the Light Brigade" and "The Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington," perhaps the greatest of the poems written by Tennyson in his capacity as poet laureate.

The Idylls of the King

Between 1856 and 1876 Tennyson's principal concern was the composition of a series of narrative poems about King Arthur and the Round Table. He worked on this project for more than twenty years. One section was written as early as 1833. Another part was not published until 1884. As published in 1889, *The Idylls of the King* consisted of twelve blank-verse (unrhymed iambic pentameter [lines of five poetic feet]) narratives (the idylls) that dealt with Arthur, Merlin, Lancelot, Guinevere, and other figures in the court. The individual narratives are linked by a common theme: the destructive effect of incorrect passion on an honorable society. The Round Table is brought down in ruins by the unlawful love of Lancelot and Guinevere.

Some of Tennyson's peers regretted that he had expended so much attention on the legendary past. However, it is clear that this poetic myth of a dying society expressed some of his fears for nineteenth-century England.

Plays and last years

Tennyson had a long and immensely productive literary career. A chronology (list of works by date) shows that he did ambitious work until late in his life. In his sixties he wrote a series of historical verse plays—"Queen Mary" (1875), "Harold" (1876), and "Becket" (1879)—on the "making of England." The plays were intended to revive a sense of national grandeur and to remind the English of their liberation from Roman Catholicism.

Tennyson's last years were crowned with many honors. The widowed Queen Victoria (1819–1901) ranked *In Memoriam* next to the Bible as a comfort in her grief. In 1883 Tennyson was awarded a peerage (rights of nobility).

Tennyson died in Haslemere, England, on October 6, 1892. He was buried in Westminster Abbey after a great funeral. The choir sang a musical setting for "Crossing the Bar," Tennyson's poem that is placed at the end of all collections of his work.

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VALENTINA TERESHKOVA

Born: March 6, 1937

Maslennikovo, Russia

Russian cosmonaut

Valentina Tereshkova was the first woman in space, orbiting the earth forty-eight times in *Vostok VI* in 1963. She orbited the Earth for almost three days, showing that women have the same ability in space as men. Later she toured the world promoting Soviet science and feminism. She also served on the Soviet Women's Committee and the Supreme Soviet Presidium (government committee).

Early years

Valentina Vladimirovna "Valya" Tereshkova was born on March 6, 1937, in the Volga River village of Maslennikovo. Her father, Vladimir Tereshkov, was a tractor driver. He had been a Russian Army soldier during World War II (1939–45; a war fought mostly in Europe that pitted Great Britain, France, the United States, and the Soviet Union against Italy, Germany, and Japan). He was killed during the war when Valentina was two. Her mother Elena Fyodorovna Tereshkova was a worker at the Krasny Perekop cotton mill. She single-handedly raised Valentina, her brother Vladimir, and her sister Ludmilla in economically trying conditions. Valentina helped her mother at home and was not able to begin school until she was ten.

Tereshkova later moved to her grandmother's home in nearby Yaroslavl, where she

worked as an apprentice at a tire factory in 1954. In 1955 she joined her mother and sister as a loom operator at the cotton mill. Meanwhile, she took correspondence courses (courses taught through the mail) and graduated from the Light Industry Technical School. An ardent communist (believer that there should be no private property), she joined the mill's Komsomol (Young Communist League) and soon advanced to the Communist Party.

Joins space program

In 1959 Tereshkova joined the Yaroslavl Air Sports Club and became a skilled amateur (nonprofessional) parachutist. Inspired by the flight of Yuri Gagarin (1934–1968), the first man in space, she volunteered for the Soviet space program. Although she had no experience as a pilot, her achievement of 126 parachute jumps gained her a position as a cosmonaut (Russian astronaut) in 1961. At the time the Russian space program was looking for people with parachuting experience, because cosmonauts had to parachute from their capsules after they came back into Earth's atmosphere.

Five candidates were chosen for a one-time woman-in-space flight. Tereshkova received a military rank in the Russian air force. She trained for eighteen months before becoming chief pilot of the *Vostok VI*. All candidates underwent a rigorous (difficult) course of training, which included tests to determine the effects of being alone for long periods, tests with machines made to create extreme gravity conditions, tests made to duplicate the zero gravity weightless conditions in space, and parachute jumps.

Admiring fellow cosmonaut Yuri Gagarin was quoted as saying, "It was hard



Valentina Tereshkova.

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for her to master rocket techniques, study spaceship designs and equipment, but she tackled the job stubbornly and devoted much of her own time to study, poring over books and notes in the evening."

Into space

At 12:30 P.M. on June 16, 1963, Junior Lieutenant Tereshkova became the first woman to be launched into space. Using her radio callsign (nickname) Chaika (Seagull), she reported, "I see the horizon. A light blue, a beautiful band. This is the Earth. How beautiful it is! All goes well."

Tereshkova was later seen smiling on Soviet and European TV, pencil and logbook floating weightlessly before her face. *Vostok VI* made forty-eight orbits (1,200,000 miles) in 70 hours, 50 minutes, coming within 3.1 miles of the previously launched *Vostok V*, which was piloted by cosmonaut Valery Bykovsky. By comparison, the four American astronauts who had been in space before this flight had a combined total of thirty-six orbits.

Tereshkova's flight confirmed Soviet test results that women had the same resistance as men to the physical and psychological stresses of space. In fact, tests showed that women could actually tolerate G-forces (gravitational forces) better than men.

Upon her return Tereshkova and Bykovsky were hailed in Moscow's Red Square, a large plaza in Moscow used for official celebrations. On June 22 at the Kremlin she was named a Hero of the Soviet Union. Presidium Chairman Leonid Brezhnev (1906–1982) decorated her with the Order of Lenin and the Gold Star Medal.

A symbol of the liberated Soviet woman, Tereshkova toured the world as a goodwill ambassador, promoting the equality of the sexes in the Soviet Union. She received a standing ovation at the United Nations. With Gagarin, she traveled to Cuba in October as a guest of the Cuban Women's Federation and then went to the International Aeronautical Federation Conference in Mexico.

Unfortunately, Tereshkova and the other female Russian cosmonauts were not taken as seriously inside the Soviet Union as they were outside. The Russians used the female cosmonauts for publicity purposes to show how women were treated equally in their country.

In truth, however, they were never thought of as the equals of the "regular," that is, male, cosmonauts, and they never received the same quality of flight assignments.

After Tereshkova's flight

On November 3, 1963, Tereshkova married Soviet cosmonaut Colonel Andrian Nikolayev, who had orbited the earth sixty-four times in 1962 in the *Vostok III*. Their daughter, Yelena Adrianovna Nikolayeva, was born on June 8, 1964. Doctors, who were fearful of her parents' space exposure, carefully studied the girl, but no ill effects were found.

Tereshkova, after her flight, continued as an aerospace engineer in the space program. She also worked in Soviet politics, feminism, and culture. She was a deputy to the Supreme Soviet between 1966 and 1989, and a people's deputy from 1989 to 1991. Meanwhile, she was a member of the Supreme Soviet Presidium from 1974 to 1989. During the years from 1968 to 1987, she also served on the Soviet Women's Committee, becoming its head in 1977. Tereshkova headed the USSR's International Cultural and Friendship Union from 1987 to 1991, and later chaired the Russian Association of International Cooperation.

Tereshkova summarized her views on women and science in an article titled "Women in Space," which she wrote in 1970 for the American journal *Impact of Science on Society*. In that article she said, "I believe a woman should always remain a woman and nothing feminine should be alien to her. At the same time I strongly feel that no work done by a woman in the field of science or culture or whatever, however vigorous or demanding,

can enter into conflict with her ancient 'wonderful mission'—to love, to be loved—and with her craving for the bliss of motherhood. On the contrary, these two aspects of her life can complement each other perfectly."

Valentina Tereshkova still serves as a model not only for the women of her native country, but for women throughout the world who wish to strive for new goals.

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WILLIAM MAKEPEACE THACKERAY

Born: July 18, 1811

Calcutta, India

Died: December 24, 1863

London, England

English novelist

The English novelist William Makepeace Thackeray created unrivaled panoramas (thorough and complete

studies of subjects) of English upper-middle-class life, crowded with memorable characters displaying the realistic mixture of virtue, vanity, and vice.

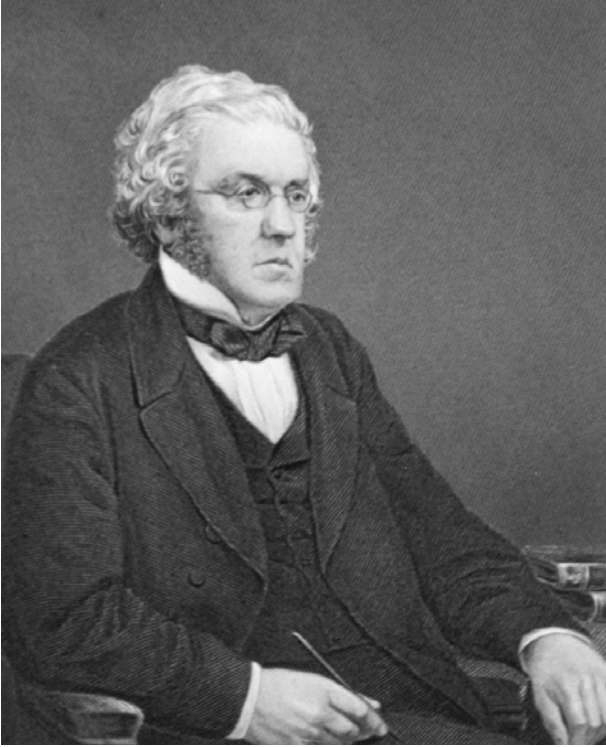
Early life

William Makepeace Thackeray was born on July 18, 1811, in Calcutta, India. He was the only child of Richmond and Anne Thackeray. His family had made its fortunes in the East India Company for two generations. In 1817, after the death of his father, five-year-old Thackeray was sent to England to live with his aunt while he received his education. He was a precocious (showed the characteristics of an older person at a young age) child and showed a talent for drawing.

Around 1818 Thackeray's mother married Major Carmichael Smyth, an engineer and author. In 1821 the two moved back to England and reunited with Thackeray, who developed a close relationship with his stepfather. When Thackeray was eleven, he was sent to the prestigious Charterhouse School. Schoolmates described him as a student who was not too serious, but very sociable. Also, he did not enjoy or participate in any sports or games. However, he did learn about gentlemanly conduct—an ideal that later he both criticized and upheld.

Education

In 1829 Thackeray entered Trinity College at Cambridge University, where he was only an average student. He left the university the next year, convinced that it was not worth his while to spend more time in pursuit of a second-rate degree under an unsuitable educational institution. A six-month stay in Weimar, Germany, gave Thackeray a more



William Makepeace Thackeray.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

sophisticated polish, as well as a more objective view of English manners. After Thackeray returned to London, he began studying law at the Middle Temple. He seemed more devoted to the fashionable but expensive habits of drinking and gambling that he had acquired at Cambridge, however.

At the age of twenty-one Thackeray rejected law and went to Paris, France, to study French, to draw, and to attend plays. The inheritance he acquired at that age soon disappeared into bad business ventures, bad investments, and loans to needy friends. Unfortunately, he was unable to distinguish himself as an artist. He met Isabella Shawe

while in Paris, and they married in 1836. They had two daughters.

Magazine writing

Between 1837 and 1844 Thackeray wrote critical articles on art and literature for numerous papers and journals, but he contributed most of his fiction of this period to *Fraser's Magazine*. In *The Memoirs of C. J. Yellowplush*, which appeared in a series from 1837 to 1838, he parodied (humorously wrote in the style of) the high-flown language of "fashnabble" novels. In *Catherine* (1839–1840) he parodied the popular criminal novel. "A Shabby Genteel Story" (1840) and other short compositions explored the world of rogues (dishonest people) and fools in a spirit of extreme and bitter disappointment. *The Irish Sketch Book* (1843) and *Notes of a Journey from Cornhill to Cairo* (1845), supposedly written by the confirmed Londoner Mr. M. A. Titmarsh, were in a lighter vein.

In the fall of 1840 Thackeray's wife suffered a mental breakdown from which she never recovered. This experience profoundly affected his character and work. He became more sympathetic and less harsh in his judgments, and came to value domestic affection as the greatest good thing in life. These new attitudes emerged clearly in the best of his early stories, "The History of Samuel Titmarsh and the Great Hoggarty Diamond" (1841). In this tale an obscure (not distinct) clerk rises to sudden success and wealth but finds true happiness only after ruin has brought him back to hearth and home.

Adopting the mask of an aristocratic (upper-class) London bachelor and clubman named George Savage Fitz-Boodle, Thackeray next wrote a number of papers satirizing

(pointing out and devaluing sin or silliness) his way of life. The series called “Men’s Wives,” which was written at the same time, shows a maturing sense of comedy and tragedy. With *The Luck of Barry Lyndon* (1844) Thackeray returned to an earlier subject, the gentleman scoundrel. His central theme is the ruin of a young man’s character by false ideals of conduct and worldly success.

As a regular contributor to the satiric magazine *Punch* between 1844 and 1851, Thackeray finally achieved widespread recognition. His most famous contribution was *The Snobs of England, by One of Themselves* (1846–1847). It was a critical survey of the manners of a period in which the redistribution of wealth and power caused by industrialism (the rise of industry) had shaken old standards of behavior and social relationships.

Thackeray’s novels

Vanity Fair (1847–1848) established Thackeray’s fame permanently. Set in the time just before and after the Battle of Waterloo (1815; a battle that ended French domination of Europe), this novel is a portrait of society and centers on three families interrelated by acquaintance and marriage. In the unrestrained and resourceful Becky Sharp, Thackeray created one of fiction’s most engaging characters.

In *Pendennis* (1849–1850) Thackeray concentrated on one character. The story of the development of a young writer, the first part draws on Thackeray’s own life at school, at college, and as a journalist. The second half, which he wrote after a severe illness, lost the novel’s focus. It presents only a superficial (having insincere and shallow qualities) analysis of character in Pen’s struggle to

choose between a practical, worldly life and one of domestic virtue.

The History of Henry Esmond (1852), Thackeray’s most carefully planned and executed work, is a historical novel set in the eighteenth century. He felt a temperamental sympathy with this age of satire and urbane wit. *Esmond* presents a vivid and convincing realization of the manners and historical background of the period. It contains some of Thackeray’s most complex and firmly controlled characters.

The Newcomes (1854–1855) is another serial. Supposedly written by the hero of *Pendennis*, it chronicles the moral history of four generations of an English family. The most massive and complex of Thackeray’s social panoramas, it is also the darkest in its relentless portrayal of the defeat of humane feeling by false standards of respectability.

Later career

Thackeray, feeling that he had written himself out, returned to earlier works for subjects for his later novels. *The Virginians* (1858–1859) follows the fortunes of Henry Esmond’s grandsons in the United States, and *The Adventures of Philip* (1862) continues “A Shabby Genteel Story.” His later career included an unsuccessful campaign for Parliament as a reform candidate in 1857, and two lecture trips to the United States in 1852 and 1855. A founding editor of the *Cornhill Magazine*, he served it from 1859 to 1862.

Thackeray was 6 feet 3 inches tall, and a pleasant and modest man, fond of good food and wine. In the years of his success he openly took great pleasure in the comforts of the society that he portrayed so critically in

his novels. Thackeray died on December 24, 1863, in London, England.

When William Makepeace Thackeray began his literary career, Charles Dickens (1812–1870) dominated English prose (having to do with the common language) fiction. Thackeray's writing style was formed in opposition to Dickens's accusation of social evils, and against the artificial style and sentimentality (emotionalism) of life and moral (having to do with right and wrong) values of the popular historical romances. Although critical of society, Thackeray remained basically conservative (a person who prefers to preserve existing social and political situations without change). He was one of the first English writers of the time to portray the commonplace with greater realism. This approach was carried on in the English novel by Anthony Trollope (1815–1882).

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TWYLA THARP

Born: July 1, 1941

Portland, Indiana

American dancer and choreographer

Dancer and choreographer (one who develops and directs dances) Twyla Tharp is known for developing a unique style that merged ballet and modern dance techniques with various forms of American vernacular (everyday) dance.

Early years

Twyla Tharp was born in Portland, Indiana, on July 1, 1941, the daughter of Lecile and William Tharp. Her grandparents on both sides were Quakers and farmers. She was named after Twila Thornburg, the “Princess” of the eighty-ninth Annual Muncie Fair in Indiana. Her mother changed the “i” to “y” because she thought it would look better on a marquee (a sign outside a theater). Twyla was the eldest of four children. She had twin brothers and a sister, Twanette. Her mother, a piano teacher, began giving Twyla lessons when she was eighteen months old.

When Tharp was eight years old, the family moved to the desert town of Rialto, California, where her parents built and operated the local drive-in movie theater. The house her father built in Rialto included a playroom with a practice section featuring a built-in floor for tap dancing, ballet barres (rails used for dance exercises and stretches), and closets filled with acrobatic mats, batons, ballet slippers, castanets (mini-sized percussion instruments that are attached to the thumb and forefinger), tutus, and capes for matador routines. Her well-known tendency as a workaholic and a perfectionist began with her heavily scheduled childhood.

Tharp began her dance lessons at the Vera Lynn School of Dance in San Bernardino, California. Then she studied with the Mraz sisters. She also studied violin,

piano, drums, Flamenco dancing, castanets, cymbals, and baton twirling with Ted Otis, a former world champion. At age twelve she began studying ballet. She attended Pacific High School and spent her summers working at the family drive-in.

Young adulthood

Tharp entered Pomona College as a freshman, moving to Los Angeles, California, that summer to continue her dance training with Wilson Morelli and John Butler. At midterm of her sophomore year she transferred to Barnard College in New York City. She studied ballet with Igor Schwezoff at the American Ballet Theater, then with Richard Thomas and his wife, Barbara Fallis. She began attending every dance concert she could and studied with Martha Graham (1893–1991), Merce Cunningham (1919–), and Eugene “Luigi” Lewis, the jazz teacher.

In 1962 Tharp married Peter Young, a painter whom she had met at Pomona College. Her second husband was Bob Huot, an artist. Both marriages ended in divorce. Huot and Tharp had one son, Jesse, who was born in 1971.

Start as an artist

Tharp graduated from Barnard College in 1963 with a degree in art history. She made her professional debut that year with the Paul Taylor dance company, billed as Twyla Young. In the following year, at age twenty-three, she formed her own company and began experimenting with movement in an improvisatory (made up on the spot) manner.

For the first five years Tharp and her dancers struggled, but by the early 1970s she



Twyla Tharp.

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began to be recognized for the breezy style of dance that added irreverent squiggles, shrugged shoulders, little hops, and jumps to conventional dance steps, a technique she called the “stuffing” of movement phrases.

Among the most creative of her early pieces is *The Fugue* (1970) for four dancers, set to the percussive beat of their own feet on a floor set up with microphones. In 1971 she choreographed *Eight Jelly Rolls* to music by Jelly Roll Morton (1890–1941) and *The Bix Pieces* to music by jazz musician Bix Beiderbecke (1903–1931).

Tharp performed as a member of her company until the mid-1980s. She stopped dancing to concentrate on her many projects for television and film, as well as for her company. She returned to performing in 1991. Other works for her company include *Sue's Leg* (1975), *Baker's Dozen* (1979), *In the Upper Room* (1986), and *Nine Sinatra Songs* (1982) set to the music of Frank Sinatra (1915–1998).

Beyond her own dance company

In 1973 Tharp created a work for the Joffrey Ballet, her first for a company other than her own and her first work for dancers on pointe (on the tip of the toe). Tharp used the Joffrey dancers and her own company in a work entitled *Deuce Coupe*, set to music by the Beach Boys. Teenage graffiti artists created the setting on stage each night. It was a huge success.

Tharp then went on to create *As Time Goes By* (1973) for the Joffrey; five works for the American Ballet Theater, including *Push Comes to Shove* (1976) and *Sinatra Suite* (1984), both with leading roles for Mikhail Baryshnikov (1948–); *Brahms-Handel* (1984) in collaboration with Jerome Robbins for the New York City Ballet; and *Rules of the Game* (1989) for the Paris Opera Ballet.

Tharp's work for her own company and for the ballet troupes made her among the first to demand a "crossover" dancer, one who would be equally at home in ballet and modern dance technique. With the success of *Deuce Coupe*, Tharp was in demand everywhere for her irreverent, funky-look choreography that appealed to the widest array of audiences in the United States.

New projects

Tharp made her first television program for the Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) series *Dance in America* (1976). She continued in television with *Making Television Dance* (1980), *Scrapbook Tapes* (1982), *The Catherine Wheel* (1983) for the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), and the television special *Baryshnikov by Tharp* (1985). Her film work began in 1978 with *Hair*, followed by *Ragtime* (1980), *Amadeus* (1984), and *White Nights* (1985). Tharp directed two full-evening productions on Broadway: *The Catherine Wheel* (1981) and the stage adaptation of the film *Singing in the Rain* (1985).

By 1987 Tharp was forced to disband her company because raising money to keep her dancers on salary was getting difficult. She was also interested in various other projects. She was invited to join the American Ballet Theater as artistic associate with Baryshnikov. When he departed the American Ballet Theater in 1989, she left as well, taking her ballets from the theater's repertory (the works regularly presented by a performance company). After that her works were presented by the Boston (Massachusetts) Ballet and the Hubbard Street Dance Company, based in Chicago, Illinois.

Work in the 1990s

After leaving the American Ballet Theater, Tharp embarked on a variety of endeavors that kept her in the forefront of American dance, including an autobiography (a book written by oneself about oneself), *Push Comes to Shove*, published in 1992; a series of tours with pick-up companies of dancers recruited mainly from the ballet troupes where she had worked; and a new work for the Boston Bal-

CLARENCE THOMAS

let, which premiered in April 1994. Tharp continued to tour nationally and internationally with her assistant, Shelley Washington Whitman, often working without a company of her own or a permanent support base.

In 1996 she choreographed *Born Again*, a trio of new dances. They were performed by a group of thirteen young unknown dancers, who were selected in a series of nationwide auditions and trained by Tharp and Whitman. She returned to the American Ballet Theater in 1995 with successful revisions of two recent works, *Americans We* (1995) and *How Near Heaven* (1995), and a new work, *The Elements*.

In 2000 Tharp choreographed a new work for the New York City Ballet based on Beethoven's (1770–1827) seventh and eighth symphonies. In 2001 Tharp made the Lafayette Presbyterian Church in New York City the permanent home for her company. This was her first permanent base in her thirty-five-year career.

Tharp is the recipient of many awards, including a creative citation in dance from Brandeis University (1972), the MacArthur "Genius" Award (1992), and five honorary (earned without completing the usual requirements) doctorates. She has established her own unique style, combining various dance and musical styles.

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Born: June 23, 1948

Pin Point, Georgia

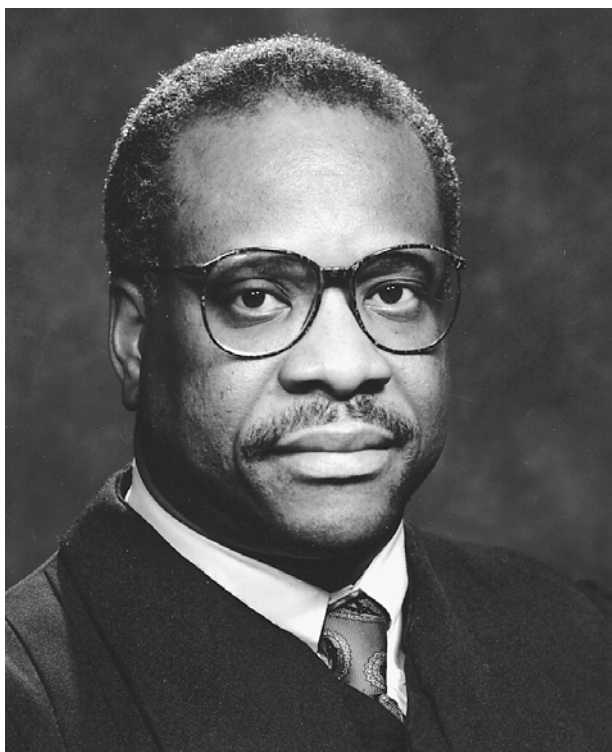
American Supreme Court justice

President George Bush (1924–) named Clarence Thomas to the U.S. Supreme Court in 1991. Since joining the Court, Thomas—the second African American to serve on the court—has often voted with the more conservative justices.

Georgia childhood

Clarence Thomas was born in the tiny coastal town of Pin Point, Georgia, on June 23, 1948. As a very young boy he lived in a one-room shack with dirt floors and no plumbing. When Thomas was two years old, his father walked out on the family. As a result, at the age of seven he and his younger brother were sent to live with their grandfather, Myers Anderson, and his wife in Savannah, Georgia. Anderson, a devout Catholic and active member of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), sent Thomas to a Catholic school staffed by nuns.

In remarks reported by *Jet* magazine, Thomas has said that he grew up speaking Gullah, a creole dialect spoken by African Americans on the coastal islands of the southeastern United States. Unlike other Supreme Court justices, he rarely asks questions from the bench during court proceedings. He has said that he developed this habit of silent listening when he was young because he found it a struggle to speak "stan-



Clarence Thomas.

Courtesy of the Supreme Court of the United States.

dard English” correctly in school. Nevertheless, he was always a strong student.

In 1964 Thomas’s grandfather withdrew him from the all-black religious high school he was attending and sent him to an all-white Catholic boarding school in Savannah. Despite being confronted with racism (a dislike or disrespect of a person based on his or her race), Thomas made excellent grades and played on the school’s football team. Thomas’s grandfather next sent him to Immaculate Conception Seminary (a place for religious education) in northwestern Missouri after his graduation from high school in 1967. Although Thomas was not the only

African American student, he still was troubled by poor race relations. A racist remark he overheard about the assassination of Martin Luther King Jr. (1929–1968) caused him to decide that he would not become a priest.

Turning to the law

Thomas left the seminary and enrolled at Holy Cross, a college in Worcester, Massachusetts. There he was a devoted student who also participated on the track team, did volunteer work in the community, and helped found the Black Student Union at Holy Cross. He also met Kathy Ambush, whom he married after graduating in 1971. The couple had one son, but divorced in 1984. (Thomas married his second wife, Virginia Lamp, in 1987.)

Thanks to his excellent academic record, Thomas was admitted to the law schools at Yale, Harvard, and the University of Pennsylvania. He chose Yale because of the financial support it offered him as part of its affirmative action policy to attract students from racial and ethnic minorities. At Yale he continued to do well academically, and he appeared to fit in socially as well. Yet, years later, he described his “rage” and loneliness at feeling snubbed by white people who viewed him as someone who could only attend Yale through an affirmative action program.

First government posts

Thomas graduated from Yale law school in 1974 and accepted a position on the staff of Missouri’s Republican attorney general, John Danforth (1936–). In 1979 he moved to Washington, D.C., and became a legislative assistant to Danforth on the condition that he not be assigned to civil rights issues. His

resentment toward some aspects of affirmative action, combined with his grandfather's lessons on self-sufficiency and independence, had moved Thomas into a circle of African American conservatives.

Thomas's conservative ideas soon brought him to the attention of the presidential administration of Ronald Reagan (1911–). In 1981 Thomas was appointed assistant secretary for civil rights in the U.S. Department of Education. Thomas openly stated that minority groups must succeed by their own merit. He asserted that affirmative action programs and civil rights legislation do not improve living standards.

In 1982 Thomas became the chairman of the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), which was designed to enforce laws against discrimination (unequal treatment based on age, disability, nationality, race, religion, or sex) in the workplace. Thomas served two consecutive terms as chairman, despite having previously sworn he would never work at the EEOC.

Supreme Court nomination

In 1990 President George Bush (1924–) appointed Thomas to the Washington, D.C., circuit of the United States Court of Appeals, a common stepping stone to the Supreme Court. Thomas served on this court for only one year. Despite this relatively limited experience, Bush nominated Thomas to replace retiring Supreme Court Justice Thurgood Marshall (1908–1993) on July 1, 1991.

Senate hearings to confirm Thomas's nomination appeared to be moving along smoothly until allegations by Anita Hill, a former EEOC employee, were made public. On

October 8, Hill held a press conference in which she made public the main points of testimony she previously had given the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). Protests by some women's groups led the Senate confirmation committee to publicly review Hill's charges.

Anita Hill's charges

Hill charged that while she worked at the EEOC nearly a decade earlier Thomas pestered her for dates and told stories in her presence about pornographic film scenes and his own sexual ability. Hill claimed that Thomas's actions made it difficult for her to do her job and caused physical distress. Nevertheless, she continued to contact Thomas voluntarily even after he helped arrange for her appointment as a law professor at the University of Oklahoma.

Hill, Thomas, and witnesses on both sides testified about the allegations during the televised confirmation hearings, which were among the most widely viewed political events in television history. Thomas denied any wrongdoing. He remarked that the process had been a harrowing personal ordeal for him and his wife. Referring to the acts of violence by which whites had terrorized blacks in the American South in which he grew up, Thomas characterized the televised hearings as a "high-tech lynching." In the end, Thomas was confirmed by a 52-48 margin, the smallest—according to *Time* magazine—by which any justice has been confirmed in the past century.

Hill's allegations helped to make sexual harassment a major political issue. The phrase itself had varying and even conflicting definitions. Nevertheless, local, state, and national laws were passed to stop workplace

practices that could make other employees uncomfortable. Meanwhile, articles and books continued to debate whether Hill's specific charges against Thomas were valid.

The quiet justice

After joining the Supreme Court, Thomas voted frequently with Justice Antonin Scalia (1936–) and Chief Justice William Rehnquist (1924–), thereby siding with the court's leading conservatives (people who resist change and prefer to keep traditions). Although generally silent during oral arguments at court proceedings, Thomas has been visible in his opinion writing from the beginning. Reviewers of his legal essays and opinions (the written arguments by which court justices explain the reasons for their ruling or their disagreement with the ruling) agree that they are clear, well researched, and consistent. However, African American political groups criticized Thomas for maintaining his conservative values in cases affecting minorities.

For the first few years after his appointment, Thomas tended to keep a low public profile. Starting in 1996, however, he began to make occasional appearances before conservative political groups. Since the election of George W. Bush (1946–) as president in 2000, he has been increasingly hailed as a judicial hero by American conservatives.

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DYLAN THOMAS

Born: October 27, 1914

Swansea, Carmarthenshire, Wales

Died: November 9, 1953

New York, New York

Welsh poet

The Welsh poet Dylan Thomas has been hailed as one of the most important poets of the century. His lyrics rank among the most powerful and captivating of modern poetry.

Welsh childhood

Dylan Marlais Thomas was born in the Welsh seaport of Swansea, Carmarthenshire, Wales, on October 27, 1914. His father, David John, was an English teacher and a would-be poet from whom Dylan inherited his intellectual and literary abilities. From his

mother, Florence, a simple and religious woman, Dylan inherited his mood, temperament, and respect for his Celtic heritage. He had one older sister, Nancy. He attended the Swansea Grammar School, where he received all of his formal education. As a student he made contributions to the school magazine and was keenly interested in local folklore (stories passed down within a culture). He said that as a boy he was “small, thin, indecisively active, quick to get dirty, curly.” During these early school years, Thomas befriended Daniel Jones, another local schoolboy. The two would write hundreds of poems together, and as adults Jones would edit a collection of Thomas’s poetry.

After leaving school, Thomas supported himself as an actor, reporter, reviewer, scriptwriter, and with various odd jobs. When he was twenty-two years old, he married Caitlin Macnamara, by whom he had two sons, Llewelyn and Colm, and a daughter, Aeron. After his marriage, Thomas moved to the fishing village of Laugharne, Carmarthenshire.

Begins writing career

To support his growing family, Thomas was forced to write radio scripts for the Ministry of Information (Great Britain’s information services) and documentaries for the British government. He also served as an aircraft gunner during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between Germany, Japan, and Italy, the Axis powers; and England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States, the Allies). After the war he became a commentator on poetry for the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC). In 1950 Thomas made the first of three lecture tours through the



Dylan Thomas.

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United States—the others were in 1952 and 1953—in which he gave more than one hundred poetry readings. In these appearances he half recited, half sang the lines in his “Welsh singing” voice.

Thomas’s poetic output was not large. He wrote only six poems in the last six years of his life. A grueling lecture schedule greatly slowed his literary output in these years. His belief that he would die young led him to create “instant Dylan”—the persona of the wild young Welsh bard, damned by drink and women, that he believed his public wanted. When he was thirty-five years old, he described himself as “old, small, dark, intelli-

gent, and darting-doting-dotting eyed . . . balding and toothlessing.”

During Thomas's visit to the United States in 1953, he was scheduled to read his own and other poetry in some forty university towns throughout the country. He also intended to work on the libretto (text) of an opera for Igor Stravinsky (1882–1971) in the latter's California home. Thomas celebrated his thirty-ninth birthday in New York City in a mood of gay exhilaration, following the extraordinary success of his just-published *Collected Poems*. The festivities ended in his collapse and illness. On November 9, 1953, he died in St. Vincent's Hospital in New York City. Some reports attribute his death to pneumonia brought on by alcoholism, others to encephalopathy, a brain disease. His body was returned to Laugharne, Wales, for burial.

Literary works

Thomas published his first book of poetry, *Eighteen Poems* (1934), when he was not yet twenty years old. “The reeling excitement of a poetry-intoxicated schoolboy smote the Philistine as hard a blow with one small book as Swinburne had with *Poems and Ballads*,” wrote Kenneth Rexroth. Thomas's second and third volumes were *Twenty-five Poems* (1936) and *The Map of Love* (1939). The poems of his first three volumes were collected in *The World I Breathe* (1939).

By this time Thomas was being hailed as the most spectacular of the surrealist poets, or poets who used fantastic imagery of the subconscious in their verse. He acknowledged his debt to James Joyce (1882–1941) and dotted his pages with invented words and puns (the use of two or more words that sound the same, usually for humorous pur-

poses). Thomas also acknowledged his debt to Sigmund Freud (1856–1939), stating: “Poetry is the rhythmic, inevitably narrative, movement from an overclothed blindness to a naked vision. . . . Poetry must drag further into the clear nakedness of light more even of the hidden causes than Freud could realize.”

A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Dog (1940) is a collection of humorous autobiographical (having to do with writing about oneself) sketches. Thomas loved the wild landscape of Wales, and he put much of his childhood and youth into these stories. He published two more new collections of poetry, both of which contained some of his finest work: *Deaths and Entrances* (1946) and *In Country Sleep* (1951). *Collected Poems, 1934–1953* (1953) contains all of his poetry that he wished to preserve.

Themes and style

Thomas claimed that his poetry was “the record of my individual struggle from darkness toward some measure of light. . . . To be stripped of darkness is to be clean, to strip of darkness is to make clean.” He also wrote that his poems “with all their crudities, doubts, and confusions, are written for the love of man and in praise of God, and I'd be a damned fool if they weren't.” Passionate and intense, vivid and violent, Thomas wrote that he became a poet because “I had fallen in love with words.” His sense of the richness and variety and flexibility of the English language shines through all of his work.

The theme of all of Thomas's poetry is the celebration of the divine (godly) purpose he saw in all human and natural processes. The cycle of birth and flowering and death, of love and death, are also found throughout his

poems. He celebrated life in the seas and fields and hills and towns of his native Wales. In some of his shorter poems he sought to recapture a child's innocent vision of the world.

Thomas was passionately dedicated to his "sullen art," and he was a competent, finished, and occasionally complex craftsman. He made, for example, more than two hundred versions of "Fern Hill" before he was satisfied with it. His early poems are relatively mysterious and complex in sense but simple and obvious in pattern. His later poems, on the other hand, are simple in sense but complex in sounds.

Under Milk Wood, a radio play commissioned by the BBC (published 1954), was Thomas's last completed work. This poem-play is not a drama but a parade of strange, outrageous, and charming Welsh villagers. During the twenty-four hours presented in the play, the characters remember and ponder the casual and crucial moments of their lives. *Adventures in the Skin Trade and Other Stories* (1955) contains all the uncollected stories and shows the wit and humor that made Thomas an enchanting companion.

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HENRY DAVID THOREAU

Born: July 12, 1817

Concord, Massachusetts

Died: May 6, 1862

Concord, Massachusetts

American writer

Henry David Thoreau was an accomplished American writer, as well as an outstanding transcendentalist, a person who seeks to rise above common thought or ideas. He is best known for his classic book, *Walden*.

New England childhood

Henry David Thoreau was born on July 12, 1817, in Concord, Massachusetts, and lived there most of his life; it became, in fact, his universe. His parents were permanently poor, as his father failed in several business ventures. Thoreau was raised along with three siblings, but his brother's death in 1842 and a sister's death in 1849 deeply affected him. He attended Concord Academy, where his record was good but not outstanding. Nevertheless, he entered Harvard University in 1833 as a scholarship student. Young as he was he established a reputation at Harvard



Henry David Thoreau.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

for being an individualist, one who follows his own will. He was friendly enough with his fellow students, yet he soon saw that many of their values could never become his.

After Thoreau graduated in 1837, he faced the problem of earning a living. He taught briefly in the town school, taught for a longer while at a private school his brother John had started, and also made unsuccessful efforts to find a teaching job away from home. Meanwhile, he was spending a good deal of time writing—he had begun a journal in 1837, which ran to fourteen volumes of close-packed print when published after his death. He wanted, he decided, to be a poet.

Enchanted by nature

America was not supportive of its poets as a rule. Thoreau spent much of his life attempting to do just what he wanted while at the same time surviving, for he wanted to live as a poet as well as to write poetry. He loved nature and could stay indoors only with effort. The beautiful woods, meadows, and waters of the Concord neighborhood attracted him like a drug. He wandered among them by day and by night, observing the world of nature closely and sympathetically. He named himself, half humorously, “inspector of snow-storms and rainstorms.”

Thoreau’s struggles were watched with compassion by an older Concord neighbor, who was also one of America’s great men—Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882). Emerson proved to be Thoreau’s best friend. In 1841 Emerson invited Thoreau to live at his home and to make himself useful there only when it would not interfere with his writing. In 1843 he got Thoreau a job tutoring in Staten Island, New York, so that he could be close to the New York City literary market.

Most of the time, however, Thoreau lived at home. A small room was all he needed. He never married, and he required little. At one point he built a cabin at Walden Pond just outside Concord, on land owned by Emerson, and lived in it from 1845 to 1846. There, he wrote much of his book *Walden*.

Literary works

Thoreau wrote nature essays both early and late in his career. They range from the “Natural History of Massachusetts” (1842), which is supposedly a review but seems to be a delightful discussion on the world of nature

around him, to the poetic “Autumnal Tints” and “Walking” (both 1862), which appeared shortly after his death. He also wrote three rather slender volumes that might be termed travel books: *The Maine Woods* (1864), *Cape Cod* (1865), and *A Yankee in Canada* (1866). Each was made up of essays and was first serialized (arranged and distributed at set times by a publisher) in a magazine. They were published in book form after Thoreau’s death on May 6, 1862.

Thoreau’s two most interesting books are hard to classify, or sort. They are not travel books, nor are they polemics (arguments to oppose an accepted opinion). The first is *A Week on the Concord and Merrimack Rivers* (1849), issued at his own expense. As a framework he used two river adventures he and his brother John had made, and he drew heavily from his journal of that time. He filled out the book with other journalizing (keeping a record of), bits of poetry, old college themes, and youthful philosophizing (seeking knowledge). The result was a book that a few enthusiasts (people who follow a special interest) hailed but that the public ignored.

Walden (1854), however, attracted followers from the beginning, and today editions of it crowd the bookshelves of the world. Though basically it is an account of Thoreau’s stay beside Walden Pond, it is also many other things. It is a how-to-do-it book, for it tells how to live one’s life with a minimum of distasteful labor. It is an apology, or formal defense. It is a spiritual (or rather, philosophical) autobiography (a book written about oneself). It is a book of seasons. And it is a defiant declaration to the world, for Thoreau was crowing in triumph at his ability to live as he pleased.

The transcendentalist

Thoreau was, so to speak, a working transcendentalist. Thoreau put his personal stamp on those higher ideals of transcendentalism and translated them into action. For example, when a neighbor wanted to hire him to build a wall, Thoreau asked himself whether this was the best way to use his time and decided it was much better to walk in the woods. Transcendentalists regarded nature, both as symbol and actuality. Thoreau made Mother Nature into something like a deity, or god, and he spent more time in the world of nature than any other transcendentalist.

As Thoreau grew into middle age, he inevitably made a few changes. He had to take over the little family business after his father died, since there was no one else to do it. He did some surveying (mapping out land for development) and he became more of a botanist (one who studies plants) and less of a transcendentalist. His spells of illness increased during the 1850s. By December 1861 he no longer left the Thoreau house. By the next spring he could hardly talk above a whisper. He died on May 6, 1862. In spite of the painful last years of his life, his end was peaceful. “Never saw a man dying with so much pleasure and peace,” one of his townsmen observed.

During an elegy (a poem to praise the dead) for Thoreau, Emerson characterized him as a hermit and stoic (unaffected by pleasure or pain), but added that he had a softer side that showed especially when he was with young people he liked. Furthermore, Thoreau was resourceful and ingenious—he had to be, to live the life he wanted. He was patient and had to be to get the most out of nature. He could have been a notable leader, given all of those qualities, but, Emer-

son remarked sadly, Thoreau chose a different path. Nevertheless, Thoreau was a remarkable man, and Emerson gave him the highest possible praise by calling him wise. "His soul," said Emerson in conclusion, "was made for the noblest society."

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JIM THORPE

Born: May 28, 1888

Bellemonta, Oklahoma

Died: March 28, 1953

Lomita, California

American football player, baseball player, and Olympic athlete

American track star and professional football and baseball player Jim Thorpe was the hero of the 1912 Olympic Games in Stockholm, Sweden, but had his gold medals taken from him for his status as a professional athlete.

Athletic youth

James Francis Thorpe (Native American name, Wa-tho-huck, or Bright Path) was born south of Bellemonta, near Prague, Oklahoma, on May 28, 1888. He was the son of Hiran P. Thorpe, of Irish and Sac-Fox Indian descent, and Charlotte View, of Potawatomi and Kickapoo descent. He grew up with five siblings, although his twin brother, Charlie, died at the age of nine. Jim's athletic abilities showed at a very early age, when he learned to ride horses and swim at the age of three. Thorpe first attended the Sac-Fox Indian Agency school near Tecumseh, Oklahoma, before being sent to the Haskell Indian School near Lawrence, Kansas, in 1898.

When Thorpe was sixteen, he was recruited to attend a vocational school (a school to learn a trade) for Native Americans, the Carlisle Indian School in Pennsylvania. His track potential was obvious in 1907, when he cleared the high jump bar at 5 feet 9 inches while dressed in street clothes. Glenn S. "Pop" Warner, the school's legendary track and football coach, asked him to join the track team. That fall Thorpe made the varsity football team, playing some but starting the next year as a running back. In 1908 Thorpe was awarded third team All-American status, the highest honor for a collegiate athlete.

Following the spring of 1909, when Thorpe starred in track, he left the Carlisle school with two other students to go to North

Carolina, where they played baseball at Rocky Mount in the Eastern Carolina Association. Thorpe pitched and played first base for what he said was \$15 per week. The next year he played for Fayetteville, winning ten games and losing ten games pitching, while batting .236. These two years of paid performances in minor league baseball would later tarnish his 1912 amateur Olympic status.

Thorpe had matured to almost six feet in height and 185 pounds and led Carlisle to outstanding football seasons in 1911 and 1912. In 1911, against Harvard University's undefeated team led by the renowned coach Percy Houghton, Thorpe kicked four field goals—two over 40 yards—and the game ended in a stunning 18-15 victory. Carlisle lost only two games in 1911 and 1912, against Penn State and Syracuse University, but conquered such teams as the U.S. Army, Georgetown University, Harvard, and the University of Pittsburgh. In his last year he scored twenty-five touchdowns and 198 points, and for the second year in a row he was named All-American by football pioneer Walter Camp (1859–1925).

Star of the 1912 Olympics

During the summer of 1912, before Thorpe's last year at Carlisle, he was chosen to represent the United States at the Stockholm Olympics in the decathlon (ten track events) and the pentathlon (five track events). He was an easy victor in the pentathlon, winning four of the five events (broad jump, 200 meter dash, discus, and 1,500 meter race), losing only the javelin. In the decathlon Thorpe set an Olympic mark of 8,413 points that would stand for two



Jim Thorpe.

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decades. King Gustav of Sweden addressed Thorpe as the “greatest athlete in the world” and presented him with several gifts, including one from Czar Nicholas of Russia (1868–1918)—a silver, 30-pound likeness of a Viking ship, lined with gold and containing precious jewels.

The gold medal ceremony for the decathlon, Thorpe said, was the proudest moment of his life. A half-year later charges against Thorpe for professionalism led to Thorpe's confession that he had been paid to play baseball in North Carolina in 1909 and 1910. (Actually, Thorpe had been paid cash by coach “Pop” Warner as an athlete at

Carlisle before that.) Shortly thereafter the Amateur Athletic Union (AAU) and the American Olympic Committee declared Thorpe a professional, asked Thorpe to return the medals won at the Olympics, and erased his name from the record books.

Thorpe, a great athlete but not a great baseball player, almost immediately signed a large \$6,000-per-year, three-year contract with the New York Giants, managed by John J. McGraw. Thorpe was to be mainly as a gate attraction. His six-year major league career resulted in a .252 batting average with three teams: the New York Giants, the Cincinnati Reds, and the Boston Braves. He batted .327 in 1919, his last year in the majors.

Thorpe signed to play professional football in 1915 with the Canton Bulldogs for the "enormous" sum of \$250 a game. Attendance at Canton immediately skyrocketed, and Thorpe led Canton to several championships over its chief rival, the Massillon Tigers. In 1920 he was appointed president of the American Professional Football Association, which would become the National Football League. Thorpe was the chief drawing power in professional football until Red Grange (1903–1991) entered the game in 1925.

The campaign to restore his medals

Honors for past athletic achievements kept coming to Thorpe. At mid-century the Associated Press (AP) polled sportswriters and broadcasters to determine the greatest football player and most outstanding male athlete of the first half of the twentieth century. Thorpe outdistanced Red Grange and Bronko Nagurski (1908–1990) for the title of the greatest football player. He led Babe Ruth (1895–1948) and Jack Dempsey (1896–

1983) for the most outstanding male athlete, being paired with Babe Didrikson Zaharias (1914–1956), the outstanding female athlete.

This recognition, however, did not influence the United States Olympic Committee to help restore Thorpe's Olympic medals. There had been an attempt in 1943 by the Oklahoma legislature to get the AAU to reinstate Thorpe as an amateur. Thirty years later the AAU did restore his amateur status. In 1952, shortly before his death, there was an attempt by Congressman Frank Bow of Canton, Ohio, to get Avery Brundage, president of the United States Olympic Committee (USOC) to use his good offices to restore Thorpe's medals to him. This effort failed. Following Brundage's death in 1975, the USOC requested the International Olympic Committee to restore Thorpe's medals, but it was turned down. Not until 1982, when USOC president William E. Simon met with the International Olympic Committee president Juan Antonio Samaranch, was the action finally taken.

Outside of athletics, Thorpe's life had much more tragedy than two gold medal losses. Besides his twin brother Charlie's death when he was nine years old, his mother died of blood poisoning before he was a teenager. Four years later, shortly after Thorpe entered Carlisle, his father died. Following his marriage to Iva Miller in 1913, their first son died at the age of four from polio, a life-threatening disease that affects development in children. Twice divorced, he had one boy and three girls from his first marriage, and four boys from his second marriage in 1926 to Freeda Kirkpatrick. His third marriage was to Patricia Askew in 1945. His place in sports history, though, was estab-

lished well before he died of a heart attack on March 28, 1953 in Lomita, California, at the age of sixty-four.

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JAMES THURBER

Born: December 8, 1894

Columbus, Ohio

Died: November 2, 1961

New York, New York

American writer and artist

James Thurber was an American writer and artist. One of the most popular humorists (writers of clever humor) of his time, Thurber celebrated in stories and in cartoons the comic frustrations of eccentric yet ordinary people.

Early life in Ohio

James Grove Thurber was born on December 8, 1894, in Columbus, Ohio, to Charles Leander and Mary Agnes Thurber. The family soon moved to Virginia where Charles was employed as a secretary to a congressman. While playing with his older brother, Thurber was permanently blinded in his left eye after being shot with an arrow. Problems with his eyesight would plague Thurber for much of his life. After Charles's employer lost a reelection campaign, the Thurbers were forced to move back to Ohio. Thurber attended the local public schools and graduated high school with honors in 1913. He went on to attend Ohio State University—though he never took a degree—and worked for some years afterwards in Ohio as a journalist.

Life in New York City

Thurber moved to New York City in 1926 and a year later he met writer E. B. White (1899–1985) and was taken onto the staff of the *New Yorker* magazine. In collaboration with White he produced his first book, *Is Sex Necessary?* (1929). By 1931 his first cartoons began appearing in the *New Yorker*. These primitive yet highly stylized characterizations included seals, sea lions, strange tigers, harried men, determined women, and, most of all, dogs. Thurber's dogs became something like a national comic institution, and they dotted the pages of a whole series of books.

Thurber's book *The Seal in the Bedroom* appeared in 1932, followed in 1933 by *My Life and Hard Times*. He published *The Middle-aged Man on the Flying Trapeze* in 1935, and by 1937, when he published *Let Your*



James Thurber.

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Mind Alone!, he had become so successful that he left his position on the *New Yorker* staff to become a freelance writer and to travel abroad.

The Last Flower appeared in 1939; that year Thurber collaborated with White on a play, *The Male Animal*. The play was a hit when it opened in 1940. But this was also the year that Thurber was forced to undergo a series of eye operations for cataract and trachoma, two serious eye conditions. His eyesight grew steadily worse until, in 1951, it was so weak that he did his last drawing. He spent the last decade of his life in blindness.

Later years

The last twenty years of Thurber's life were filled with material and professional success in spite of his handicap. He published at least fourteen more books, including *The Thurber Carnival* (1945), *Thurber Country* (1953), and the extremely popular account of the life of the *New Yorker* editor Harold Ross, *The Years with Ross* (1959). A number of his short stories were made into movies, including "The Secret Life of Walter Mitty" (1947), which is also regarded as one of the best short stories written in the twentieth century.

Thurber died of pneumonia (an infection of the lungs) on November 2, 1961, just weeks after suffering a stroke. Thurber left behind a peculiar and unique comic world that was populated by his curious animals, who watched close by as aggressive women ran to ground apparently spineless men. But beneath their tame and defeated exteriors, Thurber's men dreamed of wild escape and epic adventure and, so, in their way won out in the battle of the sexes.

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MARSHAL TITO

Born: May 25, 1892

Kumrovec, Croatia

Died: May 4, 1980

Ljubljana, Yugoslavia

Yugoslav politician and president

The Yugoslav statesman Marshal Tito became president of Yugoslavia in 1953. He directed the rebuilding of a Yugoslavia devastated in World War II and the bringing together of Yugoslavia's different peoples until his death in 1980.

Brief history of Yugoslavia

From its creation in 1918 until the country broke apart in the early 1990s, Yugoslavia was a multinational state composed of many ethnic (cultural) and religious groups. The various ethnic groups were dissatisfied with their status in the new state, opposed the domination of one ethnic group, the Serbs, and called for greater national and political rights. The country's economy was unstable and the country was surrounded by enemy states dedicated to its destruction.

Because of these conditions, many groups found support for their activities and sought to destroy order. Two of these groups were the fascists, who believed in a strong central government headed by a dictator, or

sole ruler, and the communists, who believed that goods and services should be owned and distributed among the people. Among the communists who supported a revolutionary change was Josip Broz, who is commonly known as Marshal Tito.

Tito's early years

Tito was born Josip Broz on May 25, 1892, the seventh of fifteen children of a peasant (poor farmer) family of Kumrovec, a village near Zagreb, Croatia. Tito began working on his family's farm when he was just seven years old. At the same time, he attended an elementary school where he studied until he was twelve years old. When he was fifteen years old, he began training to become a locksmith. During this time he also went to night school where he studied subjects including geography, history, and languages.

After spending several years working as a mechanic in Croatia, Slovenia, Austria, and Germany, Tito was drafted into the Austro-Hungarian army at the outbreak of World War I (1914–18) where German-led forces fought for control of Europe. He was wounded and captured by the Russians, and spent time in a prisoner-of-war camp. Tito soon joined the Red Army, the Communist group that rose to power after the Russian Revolution of October 1917 and would ultimately lead to the creation of the Communist Soviet Union.

In 1920 Tito returned to Croatia and joined the Communist Party of Yugoslavia. In 1928 he was sentenced to five years' imprisonment for Communist activity. After spending several years in the Soviet Union (the name of Communist Russia), in 1934 he was



Marshal Tito.

elected to the Central Committee and Politburo of the Yugoslav Party, the top offices of the Communist Party. In 1937 he was appointed secretary general of the Yugoslav Party after many other untrustworthy members were executed.

World War II

Tito was able to revive the Yugoslav Party and to make it a highly disciplined organization. He cleaned the ranks of disloyal members and gave the party a clear-cut and realistic policy to unite the country. For the first time, the party firmly supported the preservation rather than the breakup of Yugoslavia.

Tito was able to develop the Yugoslav Communist Party into a powerful political and military organization during World War II (1939–45), where the Axis powers of Germany, Italy, and Japan clashed with the Allied powers of America, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union.

After the Axis invasion of Yugoslavia in April 1941 and Germany's attack on the Soviet Union in June, Tito ordered the Communist Party to activate a small force to resist the Axis powers. At the same time, a movement headed by Colonel (later General) Draza Mihajlovic gained the support of the Yugoslav king Peter II. Allied officers reported that Tito's movement supported national unity rather than communism, and at the same time reported that Mihajlovic's forces had been cooperating with the Axis troops. This conflict between the two resistance leaders led to a bloody civil war.

Communist revolution in Yugoslavia

Tito's greatest accomplishment during World War II was the organization of perhaps the most effective resistance movement in the history of communism. While resisting the Axis forces, he embarked upon a communist revolution. His forces proceeded to destroy the class structure, destroy the old social and economic order, and lay the foundations for a postwar communist state system. By the end of the war, the communist military force was expanded into a large army (the National Liberation Army).

Basic policies of the Communist Party regarding the new Yugoslav state, such as federal organization of the country, were partially begun during the war. Tito provided the country with a system of temporary revolu-

tionary government—the Committee for the National Liberation of Yugoslavia. Skillfully he took advantage of every social opportunity to pursue communist political and military goals. Neither his domestic rivals nor the powerful forces of nations that occupied Yugoslavia were able to cope with the widespread activities of Tito's followers.

In December 1943 the Allies, ignoring King Peter who was exiled (forced to live) in London, declared that Tito's supporters would lead the Yugoslav forces against the occupying Axis troops. Tito's forces and those of the Soviet Union entered Belgrade, Yugoslavia, on October 20, 1944. Tito's men, however, drove the Germans from the country essentially by their own efforts, an event of the greatest importance in the future history of Yugoslavia. Unlike communist leaders of other East European countries, Tito himself had commanded the forces defeating the Axis troops and had not entered his country with the victorious Red Army. In August 1945 the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was created.

Postwar years

From 1945 to 1953 Tito acted as prime minister and minister of defense in the government, whose most dramatic political action was the capture, trial, and execution of General Mihajlovic in 1946. Between 1945 and 1948 Tito led his country through an extreme form of dictatorship (rule by one all-powerful person) in order to mold Yugoslavia into a state modeled after the Soviet Union. In January 1953, he was named first president of Yugoslavia and president of the Federal Executive Council. In 1963 he was named president for life.

By 1953 Tito had changed Yugoslavia's relationship with the Soviet Union. He refused to approve Soviet leader Joseph Stalin's (1879–1953) plans for integrating Yugoslavia into the East European Communist bloc (a group aligned for a common cause). He now started on his own policies, which involved relaxing of central control over many areas of national life, and putting it back into the control of the citizens. Although relations between the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia improved when Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev (1894–1971) visited Belgrade after Stalin's death in 1955, they never returned to what they were before 1948.

Tito attempted to build a bloc of “non-aligned” countries after Stalin's death. Under his leadership, Yugoslavia maintained friendly ties with the Arab states and criticized Israeli aggression in the Arab-Israeli War of 1967. He protested the Soviet invasion of Hungary in 1956 and Czechoslovakia in 1968, and maintained friendly relations with Romania after Nicolae Ceausescu (1918–1989) became its leader in 1965. Under Tito's leadership Yugoslavia was a very active member of the United Nations (UN), a multinational organization aimed at world peace.

Tito was married twice and had two sons. His first wife was Russian. After World War II he married Jovanka, a Serbian woman from Croatia many years younger than him. His wife often accompanied him on his travels. President for life, Tito ruled until his death in Ljubljana, Yugoslavia, on May 4, 1980, maintaining several homes, where he entertained a wide variety of international visitors and celebrities.

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J. R. R. TOLKIEN

Born: January 3, 1892

Bloemfontein, South Africa

Died: September 2, 1973

Bournemouth, England

English writer, essayist, poet, and editor

J. R. R. Tolkien gained a reputation during the 1960s and 1970s as a cult figure (a person with a devoted following amongst a small group of people) among youths discouraged by war and the technological age from his work *The Hobbit* and the trilogy that followed, *The Lord of the Rings*.

Early life

John Ronald Reuel Tolkien was born on January 3, 1892, the son of English-born parents in Bloemfontein, in the Orange Free State of South Africa, where his father

worked as a bank manager. To escape the heat and dust of southern Africa and to better guard the delicate health of Ronald (as he was called), Tolkien's mother moved back to a small English village with him and his younger brother when they were very young boys. Tolkien would later use this village as a model for one of the locales in his novels. Within a year of this move their father, Arthur Tolkien, died in Bloemfontein, and a few years later the boys' mother died as well.

The Tolkien boys lodged at several homes from 1905 until 1911, when Ronald entered Exeter College, Oxford. Tolkien received a bachelor's degree from Oxford in 1915 and a master's degree in 1919. During this time he married his longtime sweetheart, Edith Bratt, and served for a short time on the Western Front with the Lancashire Fusiliers (a regiment in the British army that used an older-style musket) during World War I (1914–18), when Germany led forces against much of Europe and America).

Begins writing

In 1917, Tolkien was in England recovering from "trench fever," a widespread disease transmitted through fleas and other bugs in battlefield trenches. While bedridden Tolkien began writing "The Book of Lost Tales," which eventually became *The Silmarillion* (1977) and laid the groundwork for his stories about Middle Earth, the fictional world where Tolkien's work takes place.

After the war Tolkien returned to Oxford, where he joined the staff of the *Oxford English Dictionary* and began work as a freelance tutor. In 1920 he was appointed Reader in English Language at Leeds University. The following year, having returned to

Oxford as Rawlinson and Bosworth Professor of Anglo-Saxon, Tolkien became friends with the novelist C. S. Lewis (1898–1963). They shared an intense enthusiasm for the myths, sagas, and languages of northern Europe, and to better enhance those interests, both attended meetings of the “Coalbiters,” an Oxford club, founded by Tolkien, at which Icelandic sagas were read aloud.

During the rest of Tolkien's years at Oxford—twenty as Rawlinson and Bosworth Professor of Anglo-Saxon, fourteen as Merton Professor of English Language and Literature—Tolkien published several well-received short studies and translations. Notable among these are his essays “Beowulf: The Monsters and the Critics” (1936), “Chaucer as a Philologist [a person who studies language as it relates to culture]: The Reeve's Tale” (1934), and “On Fairy-Stories” (1947); his scholarly edition of *Ancrene Wisse* (1962); and his translations of three medieval poems: “Sir Gawain and the Green Knight,” “Pearl,” and “Sir Orfeo” (1975).

The Hobbit

As a writer of imaginative literature, though, Tolkien is best known for *The Hobbit* and *The Lord of the Rings*, tales which were formed during his years attending meetings of the “Inklings,” an informal gathering of like-minded friends and writers, that began after the Coalbiters dissolved. The Inklings, which was formed during the late 1930s and lasted until the late 1940s, was a weekly meeting held in Lewis's sitting room at Magdalen College, at which works-in-progress were read aloud and discussed and critiqued by the attendees. Having heard Tolkien's first hobbit story read aloud at a meeting of the



J. R. R. Tolkien.

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Inklings, Lewis urged Tolkien to publish *The Hobbit*, which appeared in 1937.

Tolkien retired from his professorship in 1959. While the unauthorized publication of an American edition of *The Lord of the Rings* in 1965 angered him, it also made him a widely admired cult figure in the United States, especially among high school and college students. Uncomfortable with this status, he and his wife lived quietly in Bournemouth for several years, until Edith's death in 1971. In the remaining two years of his life, Tolkien returned to Oxford, where he was made an honorary fellow of Merton College and awarded a doctorate of letters. He was at the

height of his fame as a scholarly and imaginative writer when he died in 1973, though critical study of his fiction continues and has increased in the years since.

The world of Middle Earth

Tolkien, a devoted Roman Catholic throughout his life, began creating his own languages and mythologies at an early age and later wrote Christian-inspired stories and poems to provide them with a narrative framework. Based on bedtime stories Tolkien had created for his children, *The Hobbit* concerns the efforts of a hobbit, Bilbo Baggins, to recover a treasure stolen by a dragon. During the course of his mission, Baggins discovers a magical ring which, among other powers, can render its bearer invisible. The ability to disappear helps Bilbo fulfill his quest; however, the ring's less obvious powers prompt the evil Sauron, Dark Lord of Mordor, to seek it. The hobbits' attempt to destroy the ring, thereby denying Sauron unlimited power, is the focal point of the *Lord of the Rings* trilogy, which consists of the novels *The Fellowship of the Ring* (1954), *The Two Towers* (1954), and *The Return of the King* (1955). In these books Tolkien rejects such traditional heroic qualities as strength and size, stressing instead the capacity of even the humblest creatures to win against evil.

Throughout Tolkien's career he composed histories, genealogies (family histories), maps, glossaries, poems, and songs to supplement his vision of Middle Earth. Among the many works published during his lifetime were a volume of poems, *The Adventures of Tom Bombadil and Other Verses from the Red Book* (1962), and a fantasy novel, *Smith of Wootton Major* (1967). Though many of his

stories about Middle Earth remained incomplete at the time of Tolkien's death, his son, Christopher, rescued the manuscripts from his father's collections, edited them, and published them. One of these works, *The Silmarillion*, takes place before the time of *The Hobbit* and tells the tale of the first age of Holy Ones (earliest spirits) and their offspring.

Nonetheless, Tolkien implies, to take *The Lord of the Rings* too seriously might be a mistake. He once stated that fairy stories in itself should be taken as a truth, not always symbolic of something else. He went on to say, "but first of all [the story] must succeed just as a tale, excite, please, and even on occasion move, and within its own imagined world be accorded literary belief. To succeed in that was my primary object."

Nearly thirty years after his death, the popularity of Tolkien's work has hardly slowed. In 2001 *The Lord of the Rings: The Fellowship of the Ring* was released as a major motion picture. The magic of Tolkien's world won over both the critics and public alike as the movie was nominated in thirteen categories, including Best Picture, at the Academy Awards; it won four awards. Two more films are scheduled for release by the end of 2003.

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LEO TOLSTOY

Born: August 28, 1828

Tula Province, Russia

Died: November 9, 1910

Astapovo, Russia

Russian novelist

The Russian novelist and moral philosopher (person who studies good and bad in relation to human life) Leo Tolstoy ranks as one of the world's great writers, and his *War and Peace* has been called the greatest novel ever written.

Early years

Leo (Lev Nikolayevich) Tolstoy was born at Yasnaya Polyana, his family's estate, on August 28, 1828, in Russia's Tula Province, the youngest of four sons. His mother died when he was two years old, whereupon his father's distant cousin Tatyana Ergolsky took charge of the children. In 1837 Tolstoy's father died, and an aunt, Alexandra Osten-Saken, became legal guardian of the children. Her religious dedication was an important early influence on Tolstoy. When she died in 1840, the children were sent to Kazan, Rus-

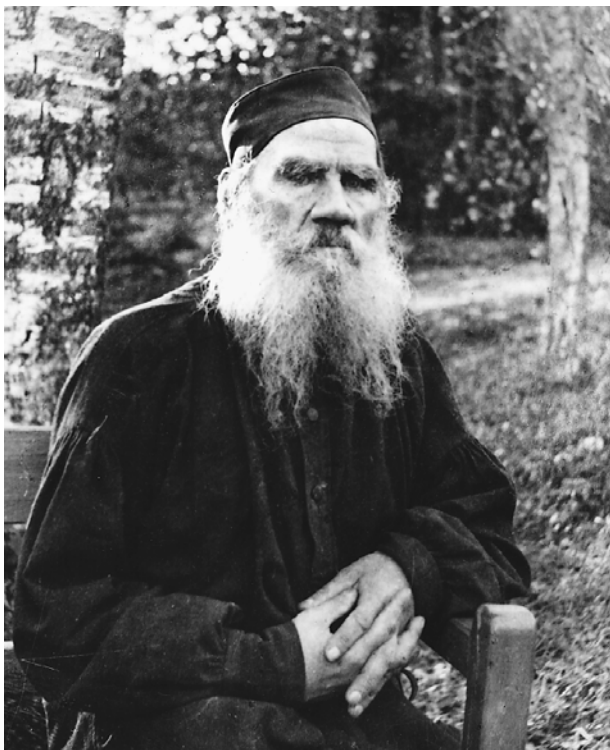
sia, to another sister of their father, Pelageya Yushkov.

Tolstoy was educated at home by German and French tutors. He was not a particularly exceptional student but he was good at games. In 1843 he entered Kazan University. Planning on a diplomatic career, he entered the faculty of Oriental languages. Finding these studies too demanding, he switched two years later to studying law. Tolstoy left the university in 1847 without taking his degree.

Tolstoy returned to Yasnaya Polyana, determined to become a model farmer and a "father" to his serfs (unpaid farmhands). His charity failed because of his foolishness in dealing with the peasants (poor, working class) and because he spent too much time socializing in Tula and Moscow. During this time he first began making amazingly honest diary entries, a practice he maintained until his death. These entries provided much material for his fiction, and in a very real sense the collection is one long autobiography.

Army life and early literary career

Nikolay, Tolstoy's eldest brother, visited him at in 1848 in Yasnaya Polyana while on leave from military service in the Caucasus. Leo greatly loved his brother, and when he asked him to join him in the south, Tolstoy agreed. After a long journey, he reached the mountains of the Caucasus, where he sought to join the army as a Junker, or gentleman-volunteer. Tolstoy's habits on a lonely outpost consisted of hunting, drinking, sleeping, chasing the women, and occasionally fighting. During the long lulls he first began to write. In 1852 he sent the autobiographical sketch *Childhood* to the leading journal of the day, the *Contemporary*. Nikolai Nekrasov, its



Leo Tolstoy.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

editor, was ecstatic, and when it was published (under Tolstoy's initials), so was all of Russia. Tolstoy then began writing *The Cossacks* (finished in 1862), an account of his life in the outpost.

From November 1854 to August 1855 Tolstoy served in the battered fortress at Sevastopol in southern Ukraine. He had requested transfer to this area, a sight of one of the bloodiest battles of the Crimean War (1853–1856; when Russia battled England and France over land). As he directed fire from the Fourth Bastion, the hottest area in the conflict for a long while, Tolstoy managed to write *Youth*, the second part of his autobio-

graphical trilogy. He also wrote the three *Sevastopol Tales* at this time, revealing the distinctive Tolstoyan vision of war as a place of unparalleled confusion and heroism, a special space where men, viewed from the author's neutral, godlike point of view, were at their best and worst.

When the city fell, Tolstoy was asked to make a study of the artillery action during the final assault and to report with it to the authorities in St. Petersburg, Russia. His reception in the capital was a triumphant success. Because of his name, he was welcomed into the most brilliant society. Because of his stories, he was treated as a celebrity by the cream of literary society.

Golden years

In September 1862, Tolstoy married Sofya Andreyevna Bers (or Behrs), a woman sixteen years younger than himself. Daughter of a prominent Moscow doctor, Bers was beautiful, intelligent, and, as the years would show, strong-willed. The first decade of their marriage brought Tolstoy the greatest happiness; never before or after was his creative life so rich or his personal life so full. In June 1863 his wife had the first of their thirteen children.

The first portion of *War and Peace* was published in 1865 (in the *Russian Messenger*) as "The Year 1805." In 1868 three more chapters appeared, and in 1869 he completed the novel. His new novel created a fantastic outpouring of popular and critical reaction.

Tolstoy's *War and Peace* represents a high point in the history of world literature, but it was also the peak of Tolstoy's personal life. His characters represent almost everyone he

had ever met, including all of his relations on both sides of his family. Balls and battles, birth and death, all were described in amazing detail. In this book the European realistic novel, with its attention to social structures, exact description, and psychological rendering, found its most complete expression.

From 1873 to 1877 Tolstoy worked on the second of his masterworks, *Anna Karenina*, which also created a sensation upon its publication. The concluding section of the novel was written during another of Russia's seemingly endless wars with Turkey. The novel was based partly on events that had occurred on a neighboring estate, where a nobleman's rejected mistress had thrown herself under a train. It again contained great chunks of disguised biography, especially in the scenes describing the courtship and marriage of Kitty and Levin. Tolstoy's family continued to grow, and his royalties (money earned from sales) were making him an extremely rich man.

Spiritual crisis

The ethical quest that had begun when Tolstoy was a child and that had tormented him throughout his younger years now drove him to abandon all else in order to seek an ultimate meaning in life. At first he turned to the Russian Orthodox Church, visiting the Optina-Pustyn monastery in 1877. But he found no answer.

In 1883 Tolstoy met V. G. Chertkov, a wealthy guard officer who soon became the moving force behind an attempt to start a movement in Tolstoy's name. In the next few years a new publication was founded (the *Mediator*) in order to spread Tolstoy's word in tract (pamphlets) and fiction, as well as to

make good reading available to the poor. In six years almost twenty million copies were distributed. Tolstoy had long been watched by the secret police, and in 1884 copies of *What I Believe* were seized from the printer.

During this time Tolstoy's relations with his family were becoming increasingly strained. The more of a saint he became in the eyes of the world, the more of a devil he seemed to his wife. He wanted to give his wealth away, but she would not hear of it. An unhappy compromise was reached in 1884, when Tolstoy assigned to his wife the copyright to all his works before 1881.

Tolstoy's final years were filled with worldwide acclaim and great unhappiness, as he was caught in the strife between his beliefs, his followers, and his family. The Holy Synod (the church leaders) excommunicated (kicked him out) him in 1901. Unable to endure the quarrels at home he set out on his last pilgrimage (religious journey) in October 1910, accompanied by his youngest daughter, Alexandra, and his doctor. The trip proved too much, and he died in the home of the stationmaster of the small depot at Astapovo, Russia, on November 9, 1910. He was buried at Yasnaya Polyana.

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HENRI DE TOULOUSE-LAUTREC

Born: November 24, 1864

Albi, France

Died: September 9, 1901

Malromé, France

French painter

The French painter Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec depicted the Parisian night life of cafés, bars, and brothels (houses of prostitution, where sexual acts are traded for money)—the world that he inhabited at the height of his career.

Crippled childhood

Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec, a direct descendant of an aristocratic family of a thousand years, was born on November 24, 1864, at Albi, France, to Alphonse-Charles and Adèle Zoë. His wild and colorful father lived in moderate luxury, hunting with falcons and collecting exotic weapons. Henri began to draw at an early age and found the arts an escape from his loving but over-protective family.

In 1878 Toulouse-Lautrec suffered a fall and broke one femur (thigh bone). A year later he fell again and broke the other one. His legs did not heal properly. His torso developed normally, but his legs stopped growing and were permanently deformed. Many attribute his health problems to the fact that his parents were first cousins.

In 1882, encouraged by his first teachers—the animal painters René Princeteau and John Lewis Brown—Toulouse-Lautrec decided to devote himself to painting, and

that year he left for Paris. Enrolling at the École des Beaux-Arts, he entered the studio of Fernand Cormon. In 1884 Toulouse-Lautrec settled in Montmartre, an area in north Paris, where he stayed from then on, except for short visits to Spain, where he admired the works of El Greco (1541–1614) and Diego Velázquez (1599–1660). In England he visited celebrated writer Oscar Wilde (1854–1900) and painter James McNeill Whistler (1834–1903). At one point Toulouse-Lautrec lived near painter Edgar Degas (1834–1917), whom he valued above all other contemporary artists (artists from his time) and by whom he was influenced. From 1887 his studio was on the rue Caulaincourt next to the Goupil printshop, where he could see examples of the Japanese prints of which he was so fond.

By habit Toulouse-Lautrec stayed out most of the night. He frequented many entertainment spots in Montmartre, especially the Moulin Rouge cabaret (a nightclub with entertainment). He also drank a great deal. His loose lifestyle caught up with him—he suffered a breakdown in 1899. His mother had him committed to an asylum, a hospital for the mentally ill, at Neuilly, France. He recovered and set to work again, but not for very long. He died on September 9, 1901, at the family estate at Malromé, France.

The influence of Parisian nightlife

Toulouse-Lautrec moved freely among the dancers, the prostitutes, the artists, and the intellectuals of Montmartre. From 1890 on his tall, lean cousin, Dr. Tapié de Céleyran, accompanied him, and the two, depicted in *At the Moulin Rouge* (1892), made a colorful pair. Despite his deformity,

Toulouse-Lautrec was extremely social and readily made friends and inspired trust. He came to be regarded as one of the people of Montmartre, for he was an outsider like them, fiercely independent, but with a great ability to understand everything around him.

Among the painter's favorite subjects were the cabaret dancers Yvette Guilbert, Jane Avril, and La Goulue and her partner, Valentin le Désossé, the contortionist (an acrobat who demonstrates extraordinary bodily positions). Through the seriousness of his intention, Toulouse-Lautrec depicted his subjects in a style bordering on, but rising above, caricature (exaggeration). He took subjects who often dressed in disguise and makeup as a way of life and stripped away all that was not essential, thus revealing each as an individual—but a prisoner of his own destiny.

The two most direct influences on Toulouse-Lautrec's art were the Japanese print, as seen in his slanted angles and flattened forms, and Degas, from whom he derived the tilted perspective, cutting of figures, and use of a railing to separate the spectator from the painted scene, as in *At the Moulin Rouge*. But the genuine feel of a world of wickedness and the harsh, artificial colors used to create it were Toulouse-Lautrec's own.

Unusual types performing in a grand show attracted Toulouse-Lautrec. In his painting *In the Circus Fernando: The Ringmaster* (1888) the nearly grotesque (distorted and ugly), strangely cruel figure of the ringmaster is the center around which the horse and bareback rider must revolve. From 1892 to 1894 Toulouse-Lautrec produced a series of interiors of brothels, where he actually lived for a while and became the companion of the women. As with his paintings of cabarets, he



Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec.

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caught the feel of the brothels and made no attempt to glamorize them. In the *Salon in the Rue des Moulins* (1894) the prostitutes are shown as ugly and bored beneath their makeup; the madam (woman in charge) sits quietly in their midst. He neither sensationalized nor drew a moral (having to do with right and wrong) lesson but presented a certain interpretation of this side of society for what it was—no more and no less.

Color lithography and the poster

Toulouse-Lautrec broadened the range of lithography (the process of printing on metal) by treating the tone more freely. His

strokes became more summary (executed quickly) and the planes more unified. Sometimes the ink was speckled on the surface to bring about a great textural richness. In his posters he combined flat images (again the influence of the Japanese print) with type. He realized that if the posters were to be successful their message had to make an immediate and forceful impact on the passerby. He designed them with that in mind.

Toulouse-Lautrec's posters of the 1890s established him as the father of the modern large-scale poster. His best posters were those advertising the appearance of various performers at the Montmartre cabarets, such as the singer May Belfort, the female clown Cha-U-Kao, and Loïe Fuller of the Folies-Bergère.

In an 1893 poster of dancer Jane Avril, colored partially in bright red and yellow, she is pictured kicking her leg. Below her, in gray tones so as not to detract attention, is the diagonally placed hand of the violinist playing his instrument. There is some indication of floorboards but no furniture or other figures. The legend reads simply "Jane Avril" in white letters and "Jardin de Paris" in black letters.

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Eiji TOYODA

Born: September 12, 1913

Kinjo, Nishi Kasugai, Japan

Japanese businessman and engineer

Eiji Toyoda is a former chairman of the Toyota Motor Company. His family-run business made revolutionary changes in the way automobiles were made.

Family business

Eiji Toyoda was born September 12, 1913, in Kinjo, Nishi Kasugai, Aichi, Japan, the son of Heikichi and Nao Toyoda. Toyoda's uncle, Sakichi, founded the original family business, Toyoda Automatic Loom Works, in 1926 in Nagoya, about 200 miles west of Tokyo, Japan. The family was so involved in the business that Eiji's father Heikichi (younger brother of Sakichi) even made his home inside the spinning factory. Such an early exposure to machines and business would have a significant effect on Toyoda's life.

Sakichi ultimately sold the patents (documents that give a person the legal right to control the production of an invention for a specific period of time) for his design to an English firm for two hundred fifty thousand dollars, at a time when textiles was Japan's top industry and used the money to pay for his eldest son Kiichiro's venture into auto making in the early 1930s.

After graduating in 1936 with a mechanical engineering degree from the University of Tokyo—training ground for most of Japan's future top executives—the twenty-three-year-

old Toyoda joined the family spinning business as an engineering trainee and transferred a year later to the newly formed Toyota Motor Company. The company was a relative newcomer to the auto business in Japan. Eiji worked on the A1 prototype, the forerunner of the company's first production model, a six-cylinder sedan that borrowed heavily from Detroit automotive technology and resembled the radically styled Chrysler Airflow model of that period. During those early years, Toyoda gained lots of hands-on experience.

Expansion

In this spare time, Eiji Toyoda studied rockets and jet engines and, on the advice of his cousin, even researched helicopters. World War II (1939–45)—when Japan fought alongside Germany and Italy against France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States—left Japan's industry in a shambles, and the automaker began rebuilding its production facilities from scratch. But while Kiichiro Toyoda was rebuilding the manufacturing operations, Japan's shattered economy left the company with a growing bank of unsold cars. By 1949, the firm was unable to meet its payroll, and employees began a devastating fifteen-month strike (where workers walk out in protest)—the first and only walk-out in the company's history—which pushed Toyota to the brink of bankruptcy. In 1950 the Japanese government forced Toyota to reorganize and split its sales and manufacturing operations into separate companies, each headed by a nonfamily member. Kiichiro Toyoda and his executive staff all resigned. Kiichiro died less than two years later.

Eiji Toyoda, meanwhile, had been named managing director of the manufacturing arm,



Eiji Toyoda.

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Toyota Motor Company. He was sent to the United States in 1950 to study the auto industry and return to Toyota with a report on American manufacturing methods. After touring Ford Motor's U.S. facilities, Toyoda turned to the task of redesigning Toyota's plants to incorporate advanced techniques and machinery.

President of Toyota

In 1967 Toyoda was named president of Toyota Motor Company—the first family member to assume that post since Kiichiro resigned in 1950. A year later, the two branches of the company were unified in the new Toyota Motor Corporation, with Eiji

Toyoda as chairman and Shoichiro Toyoda as president and chief executive officer.

The Toyodas led their company to a record year in 1984. Toyota sold an all-time high 1.7 million vehicles in Japan and the same number overseas and profits peaked at \$2.1 billion in 1985. While that performance would certainly earn Toyota a mention in automotive history books, Eiji Toyoda and his company may be better remembered for a unique management style that has been copied by hundreds of Japanese companies and is gaining growing acceptance in the United States. The Toyota approach, adopted at its ten Japanese factories and twenty-four plants in seventeen countries, has three main objectives: keeping inventory to an absolute minimum through a system called *kanban*, or “just in time;” insuring that each step of the assembly process is performed correctly the first time; and cutting the amount of human labor that goes into each car.

What Toyoda accomplished for Toyota Motor was dazzling success at a time when Detroit automakers were struggling to stay profitable. Toyota, Japan’s number one automaker, spearheaded the tidal wave of small, low-priced cars that swept the United States after successive energy crises in the mid- and late-1970s. In addition to running the largest corporation in Japan—and the world’s third largest automaker, behind General Motors (GM) and Ford—Toyoda has overseen the development of a highly efficient manufacturing system that is being copied worldwide. Although Eiji Toyoda gave up his post as chairman in 1994, he continues to hold the title of honorary chair of the company.

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HARRY S. TRUMAN

Born: May 8, 1884

Lamar, Missouri

Died: December 26, 1972

Kansas City, Missouri

American president, vice president, and senator

Harry S. Truman (1884–1972), thirty-third president of the United States, led America’s transition from wartime to peacetime economy, created the Truman doctrine, and made the decision to defend South Korea against communist invasion.

A shy start

Harry S. Truman was born in Lamar, Missouri, on May 8, 1884. He went to high school in Independence, Missouri. From 1900 until 1905 he held various small business positions, then for the next twelve years he farmed on his parents’ land. In 1917, soon after the United States entered World War I (1914–18; a war fought in Europe between the Central Powers—Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey—and the Allies—France, Great Britain, Russia, Italy, Japan, and, after 1917, the United States), he enlisted in the artillery, serving in France. After returning from the war, he married Bess Wallace

(1885–1982) in 1919. The couple had one child, Margaret.

As Truman grew to manhood, he achieved a notable change. As president he would be known for his outgoing personality and for his use of such tough-talking phrases as “The buck stops here!” and “If you can’t stand the heat, get out of the kitchen.” As a boy, however, Truman was anything but tough and outgoing. He was accident-prone and sickly, and his poor vision and thick glasses forced him to avoid the rough activities in which other boys engaged. Instead, he stayed indoors, taking piano lessons and reading. One of his favorite books as a boy, *Great Men and Famous Women*, detailed the lives of influential historical and political figures.

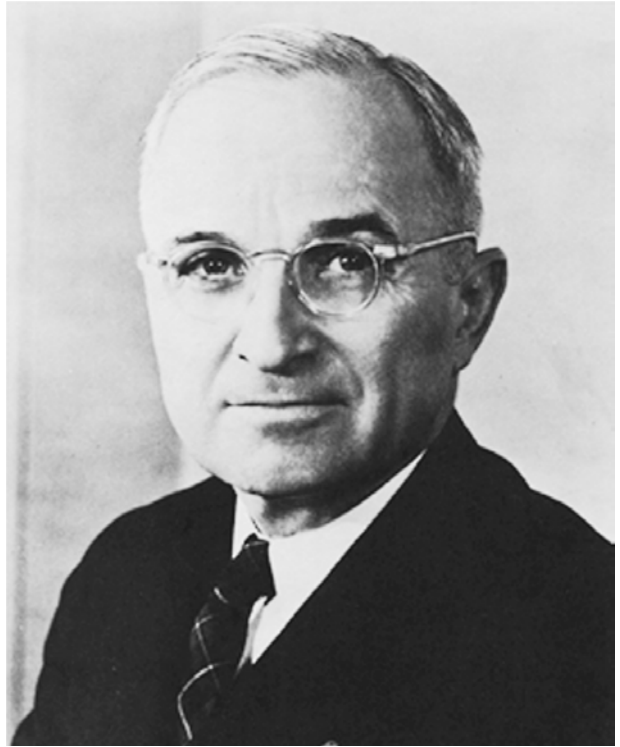
Political beginnings

A loyal Democrat, Truman entered politics in the 1920s. He was elected as a Jackson County, Missouri, judge in 1922 and served until 1924. He was presiding judge from 1926 to 1934, giving close attention to problems of county administration.

In the national election of 1934, Truman, who was a firm supporter of President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945), was chosen U.S. senator from Missouri. Re-elected in 1940, he gained national attention as chairman of the Senate Committee to Investigate the National Defense Program. He kept his chairmanship loyal to the Roosevelt administration. When Roosevelt was nominated for a fourth presidential term in June 1944, he chose Truman for vice president.

Thrust into the presidency

Roosevelt was reelected, but after Truman had served only eighty-two days as his



Harry S. Truman.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

vice president, Roosevelt died suddenly on April 12, 1945. Truman then became the president. He quickly took command, and in his first address to Congress he promised to continue Roosevelt’s policies. That July he attended the Potsdam Conference, Germany, at which the United States, Great Britain, and the Soviet Union set terms for the administration of Germany after World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allied powers—mainly Great Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and after 1942, the United States). Later in the summer he authorized the dropping of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima, Japan, on August 6, 1945, and

approved the surrender of the Japanese in a treaty signed on September 2, 1945.

The Truman administration quickly took steps to dismantle the military forces and the agencies set up to conduct the war, as well as to resume production of peacetime goods. Truman was soon forced to tackle inflation (a steep rise in the cost of living) and new demands by labor unions. He showed his power of quick decision declaring wage increases that were needed to cushion the blows from changes in the economy. He also sternly opposed measures to restrict labor organizations and acted to maintain union rights.

Truman also called for a broad program of social welfare. Although sharp friction developed between the Truman administration and conservatives (people who resist change and prefer to keep traditions) in Congress, he pushed measures through Congress for clearing away slums, construction of low-cost housing, health insurance, and the establishment of the Council of Economic Advisers to help citizens gain full employment.

In his foreign policy, Truman was alarmed by the growing power of the Soviet Union, a communist nation. He feared the spread of Soviet influence in eastern Europe and Asia, and he supported strong Western reaction to the threat of Soviet expansion. As Soviet aggressiveness made the international scene stormier, he gave vigorous support to the establishment of the United Nations.

Truman Doctrine

In the wake of World War II, Turkey and Greece seemed to be at risk of economic collapse and communist takeover. To prevent this from happening, Truman backed the leaders of his State Department in their stand

for continued American support to democracy abroad and asked Congress for \$400 million in funds to sustain Turkey and Greece. He also announced the Truman Doctrine (March 12, 1947), declaring that the United States would support all free peoples who were resisting attempts to dominate them, either by armed minorities at home or aggressors outside their borders.

Truman's policy made it possible for members of his state department to push through Congress the important measure known as the Marshall Plan, which began in April 1948. The plan provided for the transfer of large amounts economic aid from Western nations to countries in Europe and Asia that were threatened by communist domination. The presidential campaign of 1948 came as the Marshall Plan gathered widespread support from democratic governments in Europe, South America, Africa, and elsewhere.

Reelection

In 1948 Truman entered the presidential contest and fought a stubborn battle against Republican Thomas E. Dewey (1902–1971). Truman faced heavy odds in this presidential race. Besides the Democratic and Republican candidates, the entry of two new political parties into the battle made the outcome doubtful.

As the election drew near most newspapers seemed confident that Dewey would win. Public opinion polls also indicated a Dewey victory. On election night, Truman went to bed as the *Chicago Tribune* published a special issue with the headline "Dewey Defeats Truman!" The next morning, however, Truman awoke to find the he had not only carried the country by more than two million votes but had also brought in a Democratic Congress.

Korean War

On Sunday, June 25, 1950, the Korean War (1950–53) began when North Korean Communist forces invaded the Republic of South Korea. Truman at once summoned an emergency conference and announced that he would pledge American armed strength for the defense of South Korea. By September 15, American troops, supported by other forces of the United Nations, were in action in Korea. Truman held firm in the costly war that followed but hesitated to approve a major advance across the Yalu River on the northwest border of North Korea and China. China had entered the war on North Korea's side partly to protect its territory in this area.

In April 1951, amid national frustration over the war, Truman dismissed General Douglas MacArthur (1880–1964) as head of the Far East Command of the U.S. Army. He took this action on the grounds that MacArthur—a national hero of World War II (1939–45)—had repeatedly challenged the Far Eastern policies of the administration and had recommended the use of bombs against Chinese forces north of the Yalu. Such an attack against the Chinese might have provoked open war with the Soviet Union and cost the United States the support of important allies in the war. Nevertheless, MacArthur's dismissal was highly controversial, and Truman announced that he would not run again for the presidency. He retired to private life, publishing two volumes of memoirs (memories) in 1955 and 1956.

Lasting popularity

Truman died on December 26, 1972, but his popularity continued to soar long after his death. New books and movies about him

have continued to appear, and he has been commemorated with a U.S. postage stamp.

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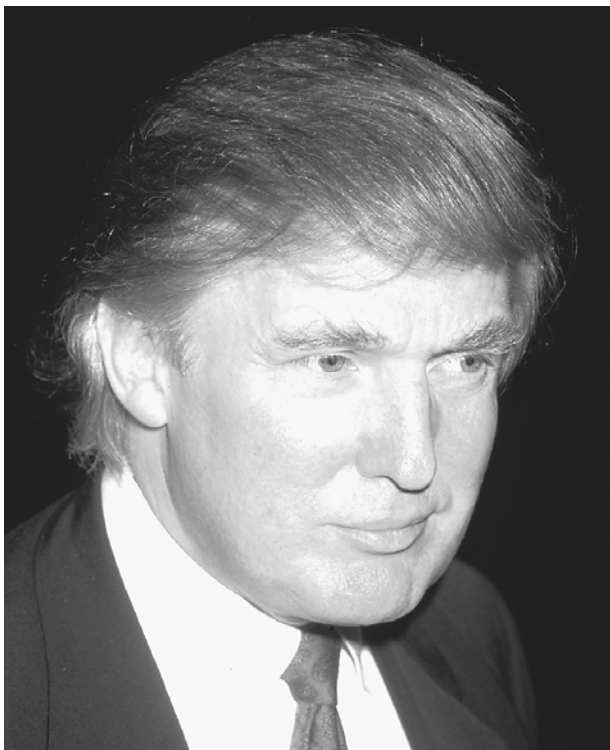
DONALD TRUMP

Born: 1946

New York, New York

American businessman and real estate developer

An American real estate developer, Donald Trump became one of the best known and most controversial businessmen of the 1980s and 1990s.



Donald Trump.

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Privileged childhood

Donald John Trump was born in 1946 in Queens, New York City, the fourth of five children of Frederick C. and Mary MacLeod Trump. Frederick Trump was a builder and real estate developer who specialized in constructing and operating middle income apartments in the Queens, Staten Island, and Brooklyn sections of New York. Donald Trump was an energetic and bright child, and his parents sent him to the New York Military Academy at age thirteen, hoping the discipline of the school would channel his energy in a positive manner. Trump did well at the academy, both socially and academically, ris-

ing to be a star athlete and student leader by the time he graduated in 1964.

During the summers, Trump worked for his father's company at the construction sites. He entered Fordham University and then transferred to the Wharton School of Finance at the University of Pennsylvania, from which he graduated in 1968 with a degree in economics.

Trump seems to have been strongly influenced by his father in his decision to make a career in real estate development, but the younger man's personal goals were much grander than those of his father. After graduating college, Trump joined the family business, the Trump Organization. In 1971 Trump moved his residence to Manhattan, where he became familiar with many influential people. Convinced of the economic opportunity in the city, Trump became involved in large building projects in Manhattan that would offer opportunities for earning high profits, utilizing attractive architectural design, and winning public recognition.

Building an empire

When the Pennsylvania Central Railroad entered bankruptcy, Trump was able to obtain an option (a contract that gives a person the authority to sell something for a specific price during a limited time frame) on the railroad's yards on the west side of Manhattan. When plans for apartments were refused because of a poor economic climate, Trump promoted the property as the location of a city convention center, and the city government selected it over two other sites in 1978. Trump's offer to drop a fee if the center were named after his family, however, was turned down, along with his bid to build the complex.

In 1974 Trump obtained an option on one of the Penn Central's hotels, the Commodore, which was unprofitable but in an excellent location near Grand Central Station. The next year he signed a partnership agreement with the Hyatt Hotel Corporation, which did not have a large downtown hotel. Trump then worked out a complicated deal with the city to revamp the hotel. Renamed the Grand Hyatt, the hotel was popular and an economic success, making Trump the city's best known and most controversial developer.

In 1977 Trump married Ivana Zelnickova Winklmayr, a New York fashion model who had been an alternate on the 1968 Czech Olympic Ski Team. After the birth of the first of the couple's three children in 1978, Donald John Trump, Jr., Ivana Trump was named vice president in charge of design in the Trump Organization and played a major role in supervising the renovation of the Commodore.

In 1979 Trump rented a site on Fifth Avenue next to the famous Tiffany & Company as the location for a monumental \$200 million apartment-retail complex designed by Der Scutt. It was named Trump Tower when it opened in 1982. The fifty-eight-story building featured a six-story courtyard lined with pink marble and included an eighty-foot waterfall. The luxurious building attracted well-known retail stores and celebrity renters and brought Trump national attention.

Atlantic City

Meanwhile Trump was investigating the profitable casino gambling business, which was approved in New Jersey in 1977. In 1980 he was able to acquire a piece of property in

Atlantic City, New Jersey. He brought in his younger brother Robert to head up the complex project of acquiring the land, winning a gambling license, and obtaining permits and financing. Holiday Inns Corporation, the parent company of Harrah's casino hotels, offered a partnership, and the \$250 million complex opened in 1982 as Harrah's at Trump Plaza. Trump bought out Holiday Inns in 1986 and renamed the facility Trump Plaza Hotel and Casino. Trump also purchased a Hilton Hotels casino-hotel in Atlantic City when the corporation failed to obtain a gambling license and renamed the \$320 million complex Trump's Castle. Later, while it was under construction, he was able to acquire the largest hotel-casino in the world, the Taj Mahal at Atlantic City, which opened in 1990.

Back in New York City, Trump had purchased an apartment building and the Barbizon-Plaza Hotel in New York City, which faced Central Park, with plans to build a large condominium tower on the site. The tenants of the apartment building, however, who were protected by the city's rent control and rent stabilization programs, fought Trump's plans and won. Trump then renovated the Barbizon, renaming it Trump Parc. In 1985 Trump purchased seventy-six acres on the west side of Manhattan for \$88 million to build a complex to be called Television City, which was to consist of a dozen skyscrapers, a mall, and a riverfront park. The huge development was to stress television production and feature the world's tallest building, but community opposition and a long city approval process delayed construction of the project. In 1988 he acquired the Plaza Hotel for \$407 million and spent \$50 million renovating it under his wife Ivana's direction.

Declining wealth

It was in 1990, however, that the real estate market declined, reducing the value of and income from Trump's empire; his own net worth plummeted from an estimated \$1.7 billion to \$500 million. The Trump Organization required massive loans to keep it from collapsing, a situation that raised questions as to whether the corporation could survive bankruptcy. Some observers saw Trump's decline as symbolic of many of the business, economic, and social excesses from the 1980s.

Yet Trump climbed back and was reported to be worth close to \$2 billion in 1997. Donald Trump's image was tarnished by the publicity surrounding his controversial separation and the later divorce from his wife, Ivana. But Trump married again, this time to Marla Maples, a fledgling actress. The couple had a daughter two months before their marriage in 1993. He filed for a highly publicized divorce from Maples in 1997, which became final in June 1999.

On October 7, 1999, Trump announced the formation of an exploratory committee to inform his decision of whether or not he should seek the Reform Party's nomination for the presidential race of 2000, but backed out because of problems within the party.

A state appeals court ruled on August 3, 2000, that Trump had the right to finish an 856-foot-tall condominium on New York City's east side. The Coalition for Responsible Development had sued the city, charging it with violation of zoning laws by letting the building reach heights that towered over everything in the neighborhood. The city has since moved to revise its rules to prevent more of such projects. The failure of Trump's oppo-

nents to obtain an injunction (a court order to stop) allowed him to continue construction.

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SOJOURNER TRUTH

Born: 1797

Ulster County, New York

Died: November 26, 1883

Battle Creek, Michigan

African American abolitionist

One of the most famous nineteenth-century black American women, Sojourner Truth was an uneducated former slave who actively opposed slavery. Though she never learned to read or write, she became a moving speaker for black freedom and women's rights. While many of her fellow black abolitionists (people who campaigned for the end of slavery) spoke

only to blacks, Truth spoke mainly to whites. While they spoke of violent uprisings, she spoke of reason and religious understanding.

Sojourner Truth was born Isabella Baumfree around 1797 on an estate owned by Dutch settlers in Ulster County, New York. She was the second youngest in a slave family of the ten or twelve children of James Baumfree and his wife Elizabeth (known as “Mau-Mau Bett”). When her owner died in 1806, Isabella was put up for auction. Over the next few years, she had several owners who treated her poorly. John Dumont purchased her when she was thirteen, and she worked for him for the next seventeen years.

In 1817 the state of New York passed a law granting freedom to slaves born before July 4, 1799. However, this law declared that those slaves could not be freed until July 4, 1827. While waiting ten years for her freedom, Isabella married a fellow slave named Thomas, with whom she had five children. As the date of her release approached, she realized that Dumont was plotting to keep her enslaved. In 1826 she ran away, leaving her husband and her children behind.

Wins court case to regain son

Three important events took place in Isabella's life over the next two years. She found refuge with Maria and Isaac Van Wageningen, who bought her from Dumont and gave her freedom. She then underwent a religious experience, claiming from that point on she could talk directly to God. Lastly, she sued to retrieve her son Peter, who had been sold illegally to a plantation owner in Alabama. In 1828, with the help of a lawyer, Isabella became the first black woman to take a white man to court and win.



Sojourner Truth.

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Soon thereafter, Isabella moved with Peter to New York City and began following Elijah Pierson, who claimed to be a prophet. He was soon joined by another religious figure known as Matthias, who claimed to be the Messiah. They formed a cult known as the “Kingdom” and moved to Sing Sing (renamed Ossining) in southeast New York in 1833. Isabella grew apart from them and stayed away from their activities. But when Matthias was arrested for murdering Pierson, she was accused of being an accomplice. A white couple in the cult, the Folgers, also claimed that Isabella had tried to poison them. For the second time, she went to court.

She was found innocent in the Matthias case, and decided to file a slander suit against the Folgers. In 1835 she won, becoming the first black person to win such a suit against a white person.

Changes name

For the next eight years, Isabella worked as a household servant in New York City. In 1843, deciding her mission was to preach the word of God, Isabella changed her name to Sojourner Truth and left the city. Truth traveled throughout New England, attending and holding prayer sessions. She supported herself with odd jobs and often slept outside. At the end of the year, she joined the Northampton Association, a Massachusetts community founded on the ideas of freedom and equality. It is through the Northampton group that Truth met other social reformers and abolitionists, including Frederick Douglass (1817–1895), who introduced her to their movement.

During the 1850s, the issue of slavery heated up in the United States. In 1850 Congress passed the Fugitive Slave Law, which allowed runaway slaves to be arrested and jailed without a jury trial. In 1857 the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in the case of Dred Scott (1795?–1858) that slaves had no rights as citizens and that the government could not outlaw slavery in new territories.

Lectures to hostile crowds

The results of the Scott case and the unsettling times did not frighten Truth away from her mission. Her life story, *Narrative of Sojourner Truth*, cowritten with Olive Gilbert, was published in 1850. She then headed west and made stops in town after town to speak

about her experiences as a slave and her eventual freedom. Her colorful and down-to-earth style often soothed the hostile crowds she faced. While on her travels, Truth noted that while women could be leaders in the abolitionist movement, they could neither vote nor hold public office. Realizing she was discriminated against on two fronts, Truth became an outspoken supporter of women's rights.

By the mid-1850s, Truth had earned enough money from sales of her popular autobiography to buy land and a house in Battle Creek, Michigan. She continued her lectures, traveling throughout the Midwest. When the Civil War began in 1861, she visited black troops stationed near Detroit, Michigan, offering them encouragement. Shortly after meeting U.S. president Abraham Lincoln (1809–1865) in October 1864, she decided to stay in the Washington area to work at a hospital and counsel freed slaves.

Continues fight for freed slaves

Following the end of the Civil War, Truth continued to work with freed slaves. After her arm had been dislocated by a streetcar conductor who had refused to let her ride, she fought for and won the right for blacks to share Washington streetcars with whites. For several years she led a campaign to have land in the West set aside for freed blacks, many of whom were poor and homeless after the war. She carried on her lectures for the rights of blacks and women throughout the 1870s. Failing health, however, soon forced Truth to return to her Battle Creek home. She died there on November 26, 1883.

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TU FU

Born: c. 712

Kung-hsien, China

Died: c. 770

Tanzhou, China

Chinese poet

Tu Fu was a great Chinese poet of the Tang dynasty, a family that ruled China from 618 to 907. He is known as a poet-historian for his portrayal of the social and political disorders of his time and is also noted for his artistry and craftsmanship.

The life of Tu Fu

Born in Kung-hsien, Honan, of a scholar-official family, Tu Fu lost his mother in early childhood. His father, a minor district official, remarried, and the boy lived for some time with his aunt in Loyang, the eastern capital. In his youth he traveled widely in the Yangtze River and Yellow River regions. He first met the poet Li Po (c. 701–762) in 744 in North China and formed a lasting friendship with him. In 746 Tu Fu went to Ch'ang-an, the capital, in search of an official position, but he failed to pass the literary examination or to win the support of influential people. In 751 he sent a *fu* (rhymed prose) composition to the emperor for each of three grand state ceremonies. While the emperor appreciated Tu Fu's literary talents, he failed to award the poet an office or payment.

After a long, uneventful wait in Ch'ang-an, where Tu Fu's resources were exhausted and his health declined, he was offered a minor position at court. Just then the An Lu-shan rebellion broke out (December 755). The country was thrown into chaos when rebels tried to overthrow the T'ang Dynasty. The rebels captured Tu Fu, but he escaped. He lived the life of a refugee (someone forced away from home for political reasons) for some time before he was able to join the new emperor's court in exile, a court set up in foreign lands after being ousted. As a reward for his loyalty, he was appointed "Junior Reminder" in attendance upon the emperor. In late 757 he returned with the court to Ch'ang-an, which had been recovered from the rebels, but he did not stay there long. He had offended the emperor with his advice and was banished (sent away) to a provincial post, or a remote border post. He soon gave it



Tu Fu.

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up and in the fall of 759 started a long journey away from the capital.

Tu Fu spent the next nine years (759–768), the most fruitful period of his poetic career, in various cities in Szechwan, China. He settled down with his family in Ch'eng-tu, the provincial capital, where he built a thatched cottage and led a quiet, happy, though still extremely poor life. Occasionally he had to go from one city to another to seek employment or to escape uprisings within the province. For a year or so, he was appointed by Yen Wu, the governor general of Ch'eng-tu district, as military adviser in the governor's headquarters and assistant secre-

tary in the Board of Works. Upon Yen Wu's death in 765, Tu Fu left Ch'eng-tu for a trip that took him to a number of places along the Yangtze River. Three years later he reached Hunan. After having roamed up and down the rivers and lakes there for almost two years (768–770), he died of sickness on a boat in the winter of 770.

Tu Fu's poetry

The rich and varied experiences in Tu Fu's life went into the making of a great poet. His works reveal his loyalty and love of the country, his dreams and frustrations, and his sympathy for the sad status of the common people. He was an eyewitness to the historical events in a critical period that saw a great, prosperous nation ruined by military rebellions and wars with border tribes. Eager to serve the country, Tu Fu was helpless in stopping its disasters and could only faithfully record in poems his own observations and feelings. While some of his poems reflect his mood in happier moments, most of them tell of his poverty, his separation from and longings for his family, his terrible life during the war, and his encounters with refugees, draftees, and recruiting officers.

Tu Fu possesses a remarkable power of description, with which he clearly presents human affairs and natural scenery. Into his poetry he introduces an intense, dramatic, and touching personalism through the use of symbols and images, irony and contrast. Above all, he has the ability to rise above the world of reality to the world of imagination. An artist among poets, he excelled in a difficult verse-form called *lü-shih* (regulated verse), of which he is considered a master.

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TUTANKHAMEN

Born: c. 1370 B.C.E.

Died: c. 1352 B.C.E.

Egyptian king and pharaoh

Tutankhamen was the twelfth king of the eighteenth Egyptian dynasty (reigned 1361–1352 B.C.E.). Although his reign was relatively unimportant, Tutankhamen became the most famous of the pharaohs (Egyptian kings) when his treasure-filled tomb was discovered in the early twentieth century. The vast and untouched contents of his tomb offered historians great insight into the ancient Egyptian culture.

Early life

Little is known of Tutankhamen's childhood; even the identity of his parents remains a mystery. Historians believe Tutankhamen was the son of either Amenophis III or Akhenaten. His mother was probably one of

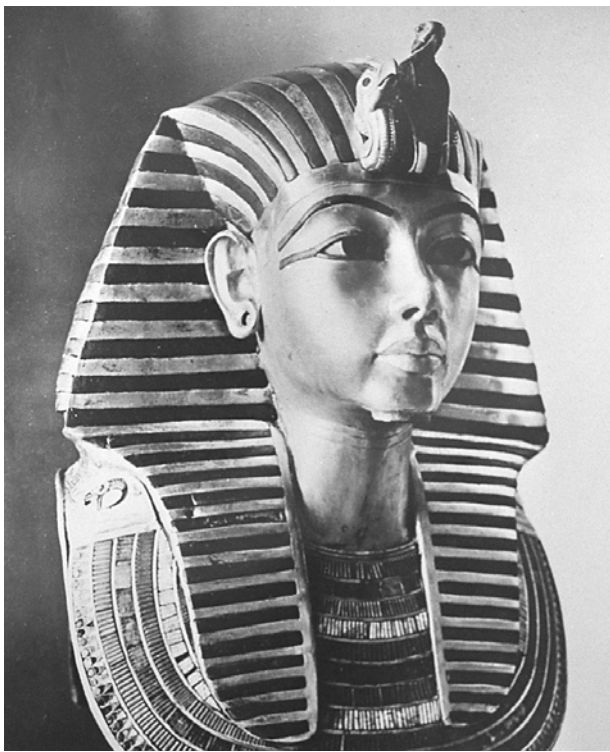
the king's many wives, most likely Kiya, a wife of Akhenaten who was often referred to as the "Greatly Beloved Wife."

Tutankhamen was only a child when he became king, for although he reigned eight full years, examination of his body has shown that he was little more than eighteen years old at the time of his death. He may have owed his rise to king to his marriage to Ankhesamun, the third daughter of the fourteenth century Egyptian rulers, Ikhnaton and Nefertiti. The couple would have no children.

Tutankhamen had originally been named Tutankhaten, meaning "gracious life is Aton," but both he and Ankhesamun (originally Ankhespaten) dropped from their names all references to the sun god Aten and the cult (a religious following) that was promoted by Akhenaten. He then became known as Tutankhamen, "gracious life is Amon (an Egyptian god)." Soon after, the royal couple abandoned Amarna, the city built by Akhenaten for the sole worship of Aten. Tutankhamen apparently left the city very early in his reign, for, with the exception of a few scarabs (Egyptian beetles that were inscribed and buried alongside mummies), no trace of him has been found at Amarna.

The reign of King Tutankhamen

The addition to Tutankhamen's label as "Ruler of Southern On" shows that he regarded Thebes as his capital city. There can be little doubt that he made every effort to satisfy the supporters of the god Amun; a *stèle* (statue) erected near the Third Pylon of the temple of Karnak depicts Tutankhamen offering to gods Amun and Mut. The accompanying text tells of the state of decay into which the temples and shrines of the gods had fallen



Tutankhamen.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

during the period of Aten. Tutankhamen had a large hall at Luxor decorated with reliefs illustrating the festival of Amen-Re.

Despite the existence of the standard paintings of the pharaoh slaying his foes, it is doubtful that Tutankhamen engaged in any serious military operations. Tutankhamen was a trained archer and in his tomb were found many trophies from his hunts.

There is some indication that the actual power behind the throne was an elderly official named Ay, who is depicted on a fragment of gold leaf with Tutankhamen. On another

fragment Ay bears the title of vizier, or high government official. He had already posed as a coregent (coruler) before the death of Tutankhamen. After Tutankhamen's death, Ay married his widow. The cause of Tutankhamen's death is unknown, although, due to skull damage found in his remains, many believe he was assassinated.

The tomb of Tutankhamen

Tutankhamen is probably the best-known of the pharaohs, owing to the fortunate discovery of his treasure-filled tomb virtually intact. His burial place in the Valley of the Kings had escaped the fate of the tombs of other ancient Egyptian kings. Fortunately, the entrance was hidden from tomb raiders by debris heaped over it during the cutting of the later tomb of the twelfth century B.C.E. King Ramses VI. In 1922 Howard Carter (1873–1939) discovered Tutankhamen's tomb after searching for nearly ten years. Tutankhamen's tomb remains as one of the greatest and most important discoveries in archeology (the study of ancient forms of life). From Carter's discovery, historians were able to piece together the life of King Tutankhamen.

The tomb room contained more than five thousand objects, many of which were covered with gold and beautifully carved. The most famous of these objects is probably the lifelike gold mask that covered the face of Tutankhamen's mummy. Carter also uncovered military items, clothing, jewelry, and many statues of Tutankhamen and Egyptian gods. In fact, there were so many items in the tomb that many are still being examined today and have yet to be displayed in museums—nearly eighty years after their discovery.

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DESMOND TUTU

Born: October 7, 1931

Klerksdorp, South Africa

South African antiapartheid activist and religious leader

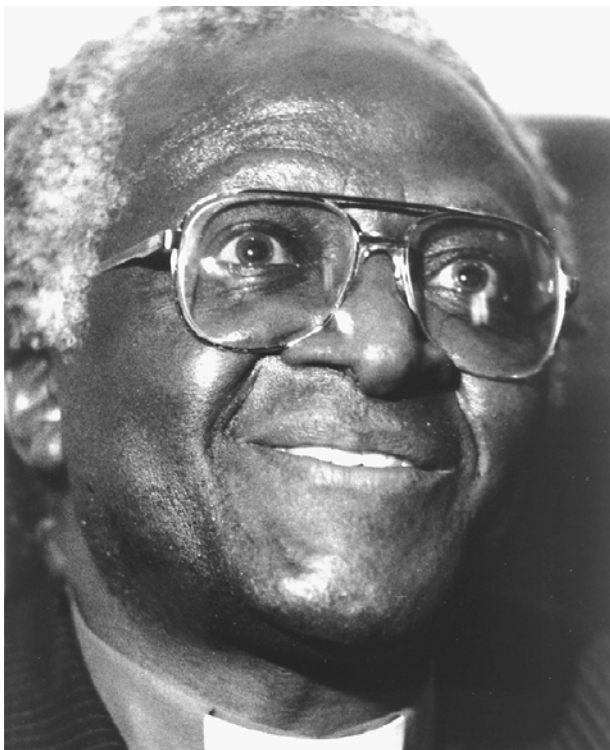
In the 1980s Archbishop Desmond Tutu became South Africa's most well-known opponent of apartheid, that country's system of racial discrimination, or the separation of people by skin color. In 1984, he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for his work in South Africa.

Apartheid

South African apartheid allowed white Africans, who made up 20 percent of the population, to reserve for themselves about

87 percent of the land, most natural resources, and all meaningful political power. Black Africans who found themselves in lands reserved for whites were made citizens of one of ten homelands, which the white-controlled government (but virtually no one else) called nations. In order to remove black people from areas reserved for whites, the government kicked out many from their homes, though their families had in some cases occupied them for decades. Black South Africans in the Republic were forced into the lowest-paying jobs, denied access to most public places, and had drastically lower life expectancies than whites. Meanwhile, white South Africans had one of the highest standards of living in the world.

Black opposition to these conditions began in 1912 when the African National Congress (ANC) was formed. Until the 1960s it engaged in various peaceful campaigns of protest that included marches, petitions, and boycotts (refusing to purchase or participate in businesses)—actions which ultimately helped blacks little. In 1960, after police fired on a crowd at Sharpeville, South Africa, killing sixty-nine and wounding many others, and after the ANC leader Nelson Mandela (1918–) was imprisoned for life in 1964, many black Africans decided to abandon the policy of nonviolent resistance. Most ANC members, led by Oliver Tambo, left South Africa and launched a campaign of sabotage (destruction) from exile. The government increased its violence in return. In 1976, five hundred black students were shot during protests, and in 1977 and 1980 black leader Steve Biko (1946–1977) and trade unionist Neil Aggett were killed while in police custody. Beginning in 1984 violence again swept South Africa. By the time the government



Desmond Tutu.

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declared a state of emergency in June 1986, more than two thousand individuals had been killed.

Rise of Tutu

Against this backdrop Desmond Tutu emerged as the leading spokesman for non-violent resistance to apartheid. Desmond Mpilo Tutu was born on October 7, 1931, to Zachariah and Aletta Tutu, in Klerksdorp, a town in the Transvaal region of South Africa. Tutu was born a Methodist but became an Anglican when his family changed religions. The Tutu family moved to Johannesburg, South Africa, when Desmond was twelve

years old. In Johannesburg he first met the Anglican priest Trevor Huddleston who was strongly against apartheid and became Tutu's main role model. At the age of fourteen he contracted tuberculosis, a terrible disease which effects the lungs and bones, and was hospitalized for twenty months. He wanted to become a doctor, but because his family could not afford the schooling, he became a teacher.

When the government instituted a system of racially discriminatory education in 1957, a system that would separate black students from white students, Tutu left teaching and entered the Anglican Church. Ordained (declared a priest) in 1961, he earned a bachelor of arts degree in 1962 from the University of South Africa, and then a master's degree from the University of London. From 1970 to 1974 he lectured at the University of Lesotho, Botswana, and Swaziland. In 1975 he became dean of Johannesburg, a position from which he publicly challenged white rule. He became bishop of Lesotho in 1976, and in 1985 bishop of Johannesburg. A short fourteen months later, in April 1986, he was elected archbishop of Cape Town, South Africa, the first black person to head the Anglican Church in southern Africa.

Begins the fight

By the 1980s clergymen (religious leaders) were among the most passionate opponents of apartheid within South Africa. Allan Boesak, a biracial minister, and Beyers Naude, head of the Christian Institute, were unusually outspoken. Naude was silenced in the late 1970s by being banned, a unique South African punishment by which the victim was placed under virtual house arrest (forced to stay at home by court order) and could not

speak or be quoted publicly. Tutu's international recognition as a critic of apartheid came when he became first general secretary of the South African Council of Churches in 1978.

Nobel Prize

The problem faced by antiapartheid clergymen was how to oppose both violent resistance and apartheid, which was itself increasingly violent. Tutu was determined in his opposition, and he spoke out both in South Africa and abroad, often comparing apartheid to Nazism (a radical movement of racial superiority led by Adolf Hitler [1889—1945]) and communism (where a strong-handed government controls goods and services within a country). As a result the government twice revoked his passport, and he was jailed briefly in 1980 after a protest march. Tutu's view on violence reflected the tension in the Christian approach to resistance: "I will never tell anyone to pick up a gun. But I will pray for the man who picks up a gun, pray that he will be less cruel than he might otherwise have been. . . ."

Another issue Tutu faced was whether other nations should be urged to apply economic sanctions (limitations) against South Africa. Many believed that sanctions would hurt the white-controlled economy, therefore forcing apartheid to end. Others believed the sanction would hurt the black community more. Tutu favored sanctions as the only hope for peaceful change. He also opposed the "constructive engagement" policy of U.S. president Ronald Reagan (1911–). When the new wave of violence swept South Africa in the 1980s and the government failed to make fundamental changes in apartheid, Tutu pronounced constructive engagement a failure.

A new era

In 1989 F. W. de Klerk (1936–) was elected the new president of the Republic of South Africa. He had promised to abolish apartheid, and at the end of 1993 he made good on his promise when South Africa's first all-race elections were announced. On April 27, 1994, South Africans elected a new president, Nelson Mandela, and apartheid was finally over. Mandela symbolized South Africa's new freedom, since until 1990 he had spent twenty-seven years as a political prisoner because of his outspoken opposition to apartheid.

In 1997 Tutu received the Robie Award for his work in humanitarianism. The award came in the midst of Tutu's battle with prostate cancer, and shortly after the presentation he announced plans to undergo several months of cancer treatment in the United States. As head of South Africa's Truth and Reconciliation Commission, a group that investigates apartheid crimes, Tutu planned to set up an office in the United States, where he could continue his work throughout the rigorous cancer treatment. It was determined in October 1999 that the cancer had not spread to other parts of Tutu's body. In August 2001, Tutu returned to South Africa after spending two years in the United States undergoing cancer treatment.

Receiving the Robie was certainly not Tutu's first recognition: he was the second South African to earn the Nobel Peace Prize. The first was Albert Luthuli of the ANC, who received it in 1960 for the same sort of opposition to apartheid.

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MARK T WAIN

Born: November 30, 1835

Florida, Missouri

Died: April 21, 1910

Redding, Connecticut

American writer and humorist

Mark Twain, American humorist (comic writer) and novelist, captured a world audience with stories of boyhood adventure and with commentary on man's faults that is humorous even while it probes, often bitterly, the roots of human behavior.

Childhood along the Mississippi

Mark Twain was born Samuel Langhorne Clemens on November 30, 1835, in the frontier village of Florida, Missouri. He

spent his boyhood in nearby Hannibal, on the banks of the Mississippi River, observing its busy life, fascinated by its romance, but chilled by the violence and bloodshed it bred. Clemens was eleven years old when his lawyer father died. In order to help the family earn money, the young Clemens began working as a store clerk and a delivery boy. He also began working as an apprentice (working to learn a trade), then a compositor (a person who sets type), with local printers, contributing occasional small pieces to local newspapers. At seventeen his comic sketch "The Dandy Frightening the Squatter" was published by a sportsmen's magazine in Boston, Massachusetts.

In 1853 Clemens began wandering as a journeyman printer to St. Louis, Missouri; Chicago, Illinois; New York, New York; and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; settling briefly with his brother, Orion, in Iowa before setting out at twenty-two years old to make his fortune, he hoped, beside the lush banks of the Amazon River in South America. Instead, traveling down the Mississippi River, he became a steamboat river pilot until the outbreak of the Civil War (1861–65), when Northern forces clashed with those of the South over slavery and secession (the South's desire to leave the Union).

Western years

In 1861 Clemens traveled to Nevada, where he invested carelessly in timber and silver mining. He settled down to newspaper work in Virginia City, until his reckless pen and redheaded temper brought him into conflict with local authorities; it seemed profitable to escape to California. Meanwhile he had adopted the pen name of Mark Twain, a

riverman's term for water that is just safe enough for navigation.

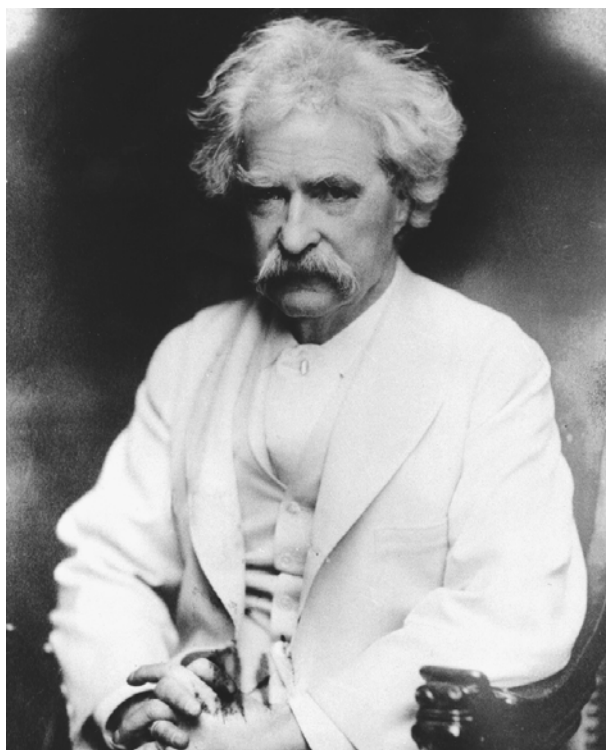
In 1865, Twain began to write a short story, *The Jumping Frog of Calaveras County*, which first brought him national attention. Most of his western writing was hastily, often carelessly, done and he later did little to preserve it.

Traveling correspondent

In 1865 the *Sacramento Union* commissioned Mark Twain to report on a new excursion service to Hawaii. His accounts as published in the newspaper provided the basis for his first successful lectures and years later were collected in *Letters from the Sandwich Islands* (1938) and *Letters from Honolulu* (1939). His travel accounts were so well received that he was contracted in 1866 to become a traveling correspondent for the *Alta California*; he would circle the globe, writing letters.

In 1870 Twain married Olivia Langdon. After a brief residence in upstate New York as an editor and part owner of the *Buffalo Express*, he moved to Hartford, Connecticut, where he lived for twenty years; there three daughters were born, and prosperity as a writer and lecturer (in England in 1872 and 1873) seemed guaranteed. *Roughing It* (1872) recounted Mark Twain's travels to Nevada and reprinted some of the Sandwich Island letters.

Meanwhile Mark Twain's account of steamboating experiences for the *Atlantic Monthly* (1875; expanded to *Life on the Mississippi*, 1883) captured the beauty, glamor, and danger of the Mississippi River. Boyhood memories of life beside that river were written into *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (1875), which immediately attracted young and old



Mark Twain.

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alike. With more exotic and foreign settings, *The Prince and the Pauper* (1882) and *A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court* (1889) attracted readers also, but *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1885), in which Mark Twain again returned to the river scenes he knew best, was considered unacceptable by many.

"Tom" and "Huck"

Twain's *Tom Sawyer*, better organized than *Huckleberry Finn*, is a narrative of innocent boyhood play that accidentally discovers evil as Tom and Huck witness a murder by Injun Joe in a graveyard at midnight. The boys run away, are thought dead, but turn up at their

own funeral. Tom and Huck decide to seek out the murderer and the reward offered for his capture. It is Tom and his sweetheart who, while lost in a cave, discover the hiding place of Injun Joe. Though the townspeople unwittingly seal the murderer in the cave, they close the entrance only to keep adventuresome boys like Tom out of future trouble. In the end, it is innocent play and boyish adventuring which really triumph.

Huckleberry Finn is considered by many to be Mark Twain's finest creation. Huck lacks Tom's imagination; he is a simple boy with little education. One measure of his character is a proneness to deceit, which seems instinctive, a trait shared by other wild things and relating him to nature—in opposition to Tom's tradition-grounded, book-learned, imaginative deceptions. *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, a loosely strung series of adventures, can be viewed as the story of a quest for freedom and an escape from what society requires in exchange for success. Joined in flight by a black companion, Jim, who seeks freedom from slavery, Huck discovers that the Mississippi is peaceful (though he is found to be only partially correct) but that the world along its shores is full of trickery, including his own, and by cruelty and murder. When the raft on which he and Jim are floating down the river is invaded by two criminals, Huck first becomes their assistant in swindles but is finally the agent of their exposure.

Whatever its faults, Twain's *Huckleberry Finn* is a classic. Variouslly interpreted, it is often thought to suggest more than it reveals, speaking of what man has done to confuse himself about his right relation to nature. It can also be thought of as a treatment of man's

failures in dealing with his fellows and of the corruption that man's only escape is in flight, perhaps even from himself. Yet it is also an apparently artless story of adventure and escape so simply and directly told that novelist Ernest Hemingway (c.1899–1961) once said that all American literature begins with this book.

Last writings

After a series of unsuccessful business ventures in Europe, Twain returned to the United States in 1900. His writings grew increasingly bitter, especially after his wife's death in 1905. *The Man That Corrupted Hadleyburg* (1900) exposed corruption in a small, typical American town. *Eve's Diary* (1906), written partly in memory of his wife, showed a man saved from bungling only through the influence of a good woman.

In 1906 Twain began to dictate his autobiography to Albert B. Paine, recording scattered memories without any particular order. Portions from it were published in periodicals later that year. With the income from the excerpts of his autobiography, he built a large house in Redding, Connecticut, which he named Stormfield. There, after several trips to Bermuda to improve his declining health, he died on April 21, 1910.

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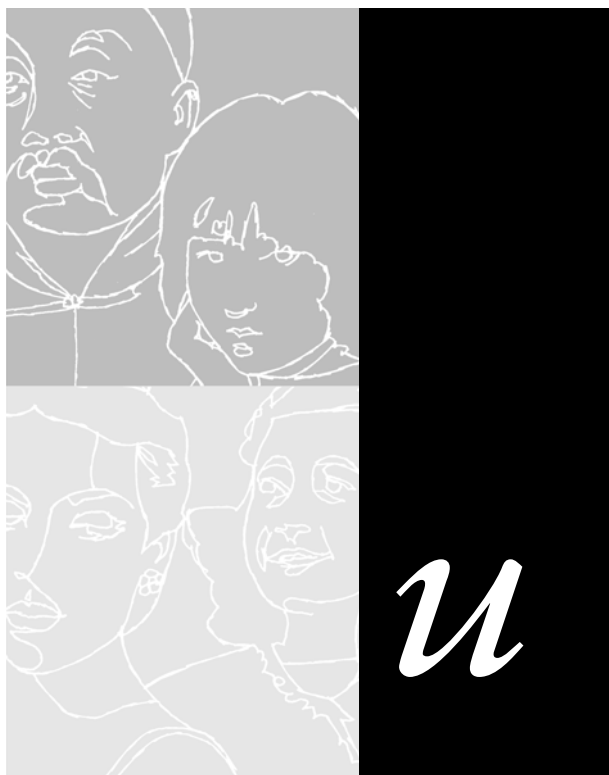
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JOHN UPDIKE

Born: March 18, 1932

Shillington, Pennsylvania

American author and poet

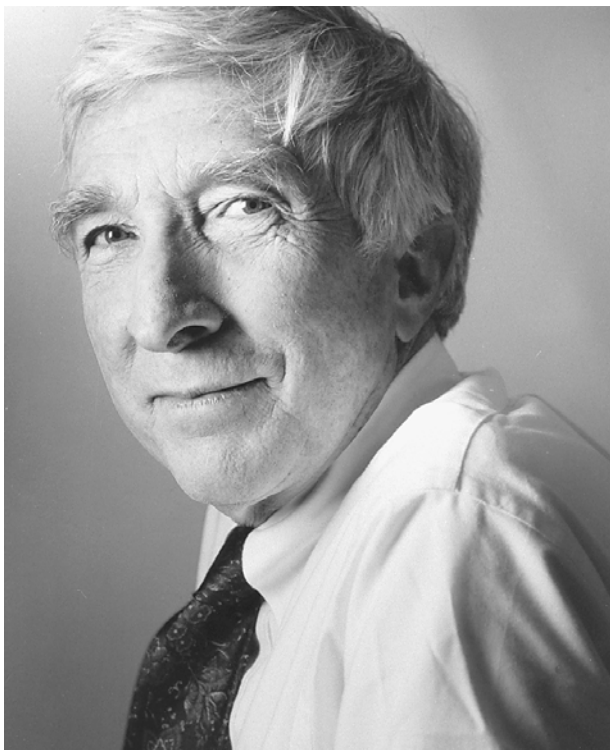
Author John Updike mirrored his America in poems, short stories, essays, and novels, especially the four-volume “Rabbit” series.

Early life

John Hoyer Updike was born on March 18, 1932, in Shillington, Pennsylvania. His

father, Wesley, was a high school mathematics teacher, the model for several sympathetic father figures in Updike’s early works. Because Updike’s mother, Linda Grace Hoyer Updike, had literary dreams of her own, books were a large part of the boy’s early life. A sickly child, Updike turned to reading and art as an escape. In high school, he worked on the school newspaper and excelled in academics and upon graduation was admitted into Harvard University in Cambridge, Massachusetts.

At the age of twenty-two, Updike began his writing career when he published his first story “Friends from Philadelphia,” in the *New Yorker* in 1954. Since childhood Updike had admired the *New Yorker* and always dreamed



John Updike.

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of becoming a cartoonist for the magazine. He majored in English at Harvard where he developed his skills as a graphic artist and cartoonist for the *Lampoon*, the college's humor magazine. In 1953, his junior year at Harvard, he married Mary Pennington, a Radcliffe art student. Upon graduation the following year, Updike and his bride went to London, England, where he had won a Knox fellowship (scholarship) for study at the Ruskin School of Drawing and Fine Art in Oxford, England.

Updike returned to the United States in 1955 and took a job as a staff writer at the

New Yorker at the invitation of famed editor E. B. White (1899–1985), achieving a life-long goal. But after two years and many “Talk of the Town” columns, he left New York City for Ipswich, Massachusetts, to devote himself full time to his own writing.

Twenty years of poetry

Updike began his remarkable career as a poet in 1958 by publishing his first volume, a collection of poems titled *The Carpentered Hen*. It is a book of light, amusing verse in the style of Ogden Nash (1902–1971) and Robert Service (1874–1958). The poetry possesses several styles shared by his fiction: careful attention to the sounds of words and of their meanings, the use of popular culture by identifying objects by familiar brand names, and the imitation of the popular press through advertising language.

Updike's output of light verse diminished with the publication of each succeeding volume of poems. His poetry has been collected in several volumes, among them *Telephone Poles and Other Poems* (1963); *Midpoint* (1969), which is a personal look at the midpoint of his life; and *Tossing and Turning* (1977), which some critics consider his finest collection of verse.

The “Rabbit” series and other novels

Although Updike's reputation rests on his complete body of work, he was first established as a major American writer upon the publication of his novel *Rabbit Run* (1960)—although at that date no one could have predicted the rich series of novels that would follow. It chronicled the life of Harry (Rabbit) Angstrom, creating as memorable an American character as any that appeared in

the twentieth century. Harry Angstrom's life peaked in high school where he was admired as a superb basketball player. But by the age of twenty-six he is washed up in a dead-end job, demonstrating gadgets in a dime store, living a disappointed and constricted life. His natural reaction to this problem is to "run" (as would his namesake). And he runs, fleeing his wife and family as though the salvation of his soul depends upon it. The climax of Rabbit's search results in tragedy, but it is to the credit of Updike's skill that great sympathy for a dislikable character is brought forth from readers.

The second novel in the series, *Rabbit Redux* (1971), takes up the story of Harry Angstrom ten years later at the age of thirty-six. Updike continues Rabbit's story against a background of current events. The novel begins on the day of the moon shot, when the first human walked on the moon. It is the late 1960s and the optimism of American technology is countered by the sour feelings towards race riots, antiwar protests, and the drug culture. His family is falling apart, mirroring the problems of the country at large. Rabbit finally overcomes his dismal situation and brings "outsiders" into his home, attempting to recreate his family.

The next book in the series is *Rabbit Is Rich* (1981), which won the 1982 Pulitzer Prize. Rabbit is forty-six and finally successful, selling Japanese fuel-efficient cars during the time of the oil crisis in the 1970s. In this novel Rabbit's son Nelson's failure becomes the counterweight to Rabbit's success.

Rabbit at Rest (1990) brings Rabbit into the 1980s to confront an even grimmer set of problems: acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS; an incurable disease that

attacks the immune system), cocaine addiction, and terrorism. Rabbit suffers a heart attack and is haunted by ghosts of his past. Death looms ever larger. In these four novels an insignificant life presses and insists itself upon our consciousness, and we realize that this life has become the story of our common American experience recorded over three decades.

Other works

Updike wrote many other major novels, including *The Centaur* (1963), *Couples* (1965), *A Month of Sundays* (1975), *The Witches of Eastwick* (1984), *Brazil* (1993), and *Bech at Bay* (1998). Updike was also the author of several volumes of short stories, among them *Pigeon Feathers* (1962), *The Music School* (1966), *Bech: A Book* (1970), *Museums and Women* (1972), and *Bech Is Back* (1982).

In 1999 Updike published *More Matter: Essays and Criticism*, a collection of occasional pieces, reviews, speeches, and some personal reflection. On February 27, 2000, his novel *Gertrude and Claudius* was published by Knopf. The book was based on William Shakespeare's (1564–1616) play *Hamlet*.

Updike has been honored throughout his career: twice he received the National Book Critics Circle Award and the Pulitzer Prize. He also received the American Book Award and was elected to the American Academy of Arts and Letters. Updike has been one of the most productive American authors of his time, leading even his most dedicated fans to confess, as Sean French did in *New Statesman and Society*, "Updike can write faster than I can read."

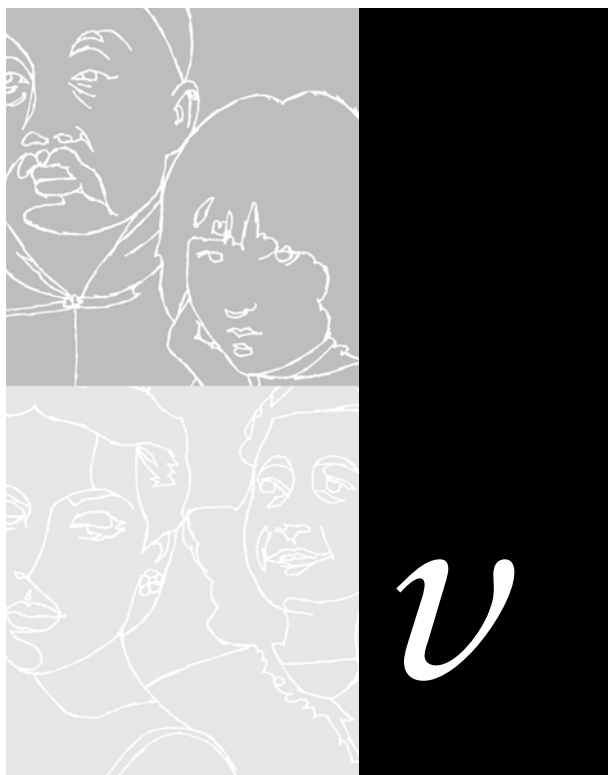
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VINCENT VAN GOGH

Born: March 30, 1853

Groot-Zundert, Holland

Died: July 29, 1890

Auvers, France

Dutch painter

Vincent Van Gogh was a Dutch painter whose formal distortions and humanistic concerns made him a major pioneer of twentieth-century expressionism, an artistic movement that emphasized expression of the artist's experience.

Childhood

Born on March 30, 1853, at Groot-Zundert in the province of Brabant, Holland, Vincent Willem Van Gogh was the son of a Protestant minister, Theodorus Van Gogh. Exactly a year before his birth, his mother, Cornelia, gave birth to an infant, also named Vincent, who was stillborn, or dead upon birth. His grieving parents buried the child and set up a tombstone to mark the grave. As a result, Vincent Van Gogh grew up near the haunting sight of a grave with his own name upon it. His mother later gave birth to Theo, his younger brother, and three younger sisters. Not much is known about Van Gogh's earlier education, but he did receive some encouragement from his mother to draw and

paint. As a teenager he drew and painted regularly.

Van Gogh's uncle was a partner in Goupil and Company, art dealers. Vincent entered the firm at the age of sixteen and remained there for six years. He served the firm first in The Hague, the political seat of the Netherlands, and then in London, England, where he fell in love with his landlady's daughter, who rejected him. Later he worked for Goupil's branch in Paris, France.

Because of Van Gogh's unpleasant attitude, Goupil dismissed him in 1876. That year he returned to England, worked at a small school at Ramsgate, and did some preaching. In early 1877 he clerked in a bookshop in Dordrecht. Then, convinced that the ministry ought to be his calling, he joined a religious seminary in Brussels, Belgium. He left three months later to become an evangelist (a preacher) in a poor mining section of Belgium, the Borinage. Van Gogh exhibited the necessary dedication, even giving away his clothes, but his odd behavior kept the miners at a distance. Once again, in July 1879, he found himself dismissed from a job. This period was a dark one for Van Gogh. He wished to give himself to others but was constantly being rejected.

In 1880, after much soul searching, Van Gogh decided to devote his life to art, a profession he accepted as a spiritual calling. When in London he had visited museums, and he had drawn a little while in the Borinage. In October 1880 he attended an art school in Brussels, where he studied the basics of perspective (representing three-dimensional objects on a two-dimensional surface) and anatomy (the human body). From April to December 1881 he stayed with

his parents, who were then in Etten, and continued to work on his art. At this time, too, he studied at the academic art school at The Hague, where his cousin Anton Mauve taught.

Dutch period

During Van Gogh's Dutch period (1880–1886) he created works in which his overriding concerns for his fellow man were growing. His subjects were poor people, miners, peasants, and inhabitants of almshouses, or houses for the poor. Among his favorite painters at this time were Jean François Millet (1814–1875), Rembrandt (1606–1669), and Honoré Daumier (1808–1879). Complementing Van Gogh's dreary subject matter of this time were his colors, dark brownish and greenish shades. The masterpiece of Van Gogh's Dutch period is the *Potato Eaters* (1885), a night scene in which peasants sit at their meal around a table.

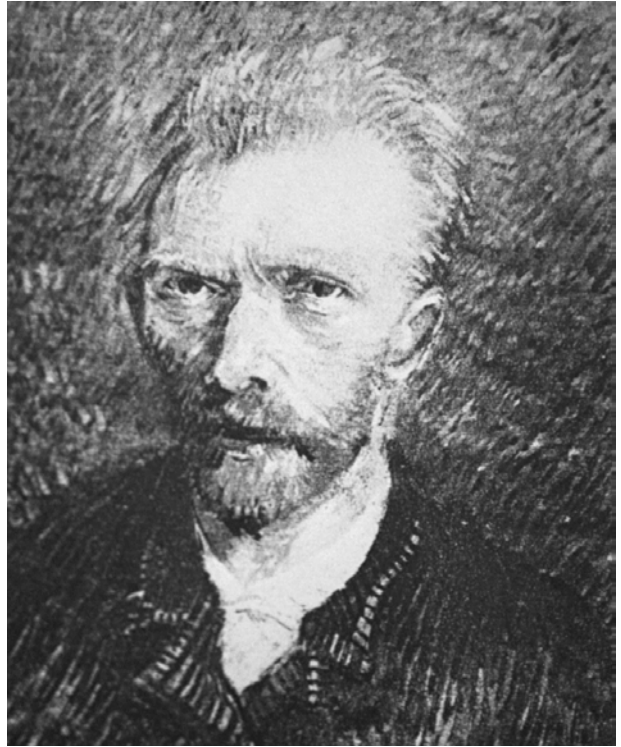
Van Gogh decided to go to Paris in early 1886, partially because he was drawn to the simple and artistic life of the French city. His younger brother, Theo, was living in Paris, where he directed a small gallery maintained by Goupil and Company. Theo had supported Vincent financially and emotionally from the time he decided to become a painter, and would continue to do so throughout his life. The letters between the brothers are among the most moving documents in all the history of Western art. Vincent shared Theo's apartment and studied at an art school run by the traditional painter Fernand Cormon, where he met Émile Bernard (1868–1941) and Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec (1864–1901), who became his friends.

By now Van Gogh was largely under the influence of the impressionists, a style of painting where the artist concentrates on the immediate impression of a scene by the use of light and color. Especially influenced by Camille Pissarro (1830–1903), Van Gogh was persuaded to give up the gloomy tones of his Dutch period for bright, high-keyed colors. Also, his subject matter changed from the world of peasants to a typically impressionistic subject matter, such as cafés and cityscapes around Montmartre, an area of northern Paris. He also copied Japanese prints. While subjects and handling were obviously taken from impressionism, there frequently could be detected a certain sad quality, as in a scene of *Montmartre* (1886), where pedestrians are pushed to the outer sides of an open square.

Stay at Arles

Longing for a place of light and warmth, and tired of being entirely financially dependent on Theo, Van Gogh left for Arles in southern France in February 1888. The pleasant country about Arles and the warmth of the place restored Van Gogh to health. In his fifteen months there he painted over two hundred pictures. At this time he applied color in simplified, highly dense masses, his drawing became more energetic and confused than ever before, and objects seemed to radiate a light of their own without giving off shadows. During this period he also turned to painting portraits and executed several self-portraits. Among the masterpieces of his Arles period are the *Fishing Boats on the Beach at Saintes-Maries* (June 1888); the *Night Café* (September); and the *Artist's Bedroom at Arles* (October).

At Arles Van Gogh suffered fainting spells and seizures (involuntary muscle



Vincent Van Gogh.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

spasms). The local population began to turn against him as well. Paul Gauguin (1848–1903), responding to his invitation, visited him in October 1888, but the two men quarreled violently. Gauguin left for Paris. Van Gogh, in a fit of remorse and anger, cut off his ear. On May 9, 1889, he asked to be admitted to the asylum at Saint-Rémy-de-Provence, a hospital for the mentally ill.

Production at Saint-Rémy

In the year Van Gogh spent at the asylum he worked as much as he had at Arles, producing 150 paintings and hundreds of drawings. Van Gogh suffered several attacks but

was completely peaceful in between. At this time he received his first critical praise (a good review), an article by the writer Albert Aurier.

During Van Gogh's stay at Saint-Rémy, his art changed markedly. His colors lost the intensity of the Arles period: yellows became coppers; reds verged toward brownish tones. His lines became restless. He applied the paint more violently with thicker impasto, the application of thick layers. Van Gogh was drawn to objects in nature under stress: whirling suns, twisted cypress trees, and surging mountains. In *Starry Night* (1889) the whole world seems engulfed by circular movements.

Van Gogh went to Paris on May 17, 1890, to visit his brother. On the advice of Pissarro, Theo had Vincent go to Auvers, just outside Paris, to submit to the care of Dr. Paul Gachet, an amateur painter and a friend of Pissarro and Paul Cézanne (1839–1906).

Last year at Auvers

Van Gogh arrived at Auvers on May 21, 1890. He painted a portrait of Dr. Gachet and portraits of his daughters, as well as the *Church of Auvers*. The blue of the Auvers period was not the full blue of Arles but a more mysterious, flickering blue. In his last painting, the *Cornfield with Crows*, Van Gogh showed a topsy-turvy world. The spectator himself becomes the object of perspective, and it is toward him that the crows appear to be flying.

At first Van Gogh felt relieved at Auvers, but toward the end of June he experienced fits of temper and often quarreled with Gachet. On July 27, 1890, he shot himself in a lonely field and died the morning of July 29, 1890.

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JAN VERMEER

Born: October 30, 1632

Delft, Netherlands

Died: December 15, 1675

Delft, Netherlands

Dutch painter

The Dutch painter Jan Vermeer of Delft transformed traditional Dutch themes into images of fantastic poise and peace, rich with symbolic meaning.

Mysterious childhood

The documented facts about Jan Vermeer's life are few. He was born on October 30 or 31, 1632, in Delft, Netherlands, the second of two children to Digna Baltens and Reynier Jansz. His father was an art dealer and silk weaver who also kept a tavern, and Vermeer probably took over the business after his father's death in 1655. It is presumed that his father, who was actively involved with the local artists and collectors, was an early influence on the young child. Vermeer supposedly began his training as an artist around the mid-1640s.

In 1653 Vermeer married a well-to-do Catholic girl from Gouda; they had eleven children. In the year of his marriage he became a master in the Delft painters' guild (an association), of which he was an officer from 1662 to 1663, and again, from 1669 to 1670. He seems to have painted very little and to have sold only a fraction of his limited production, for the majority of his paintings were still in the hands of his family when he died. His dealings in works by other artists seem to have supported his family reasonably well until he was financially ruined following the French invasion of 1672, when France invaded the Spanish Netherlands. He died in 1675 and was buried on December 15. The following year his wife was forced to declare bankruptcy.

Nothing is known about where Vermeer was educated and trained as a painter. In part because verses written following the death of Carel Fabritius (1622–1654) in 1654 mention Vermeer as his successor as Delft's leading artist, it has been suggested that Fabritius was Vermeer's teacher. Certainly Fabritius helped develop Vermeer's interest in perspective experiments (experiments with depth)



Jan Vermeer.

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and his use of a light-flooded wall as a background for figures. But Fabritius lived in Delft only after 1650, by which time Vermeer would have been well on his way toward the completion of his training.

Early works

The warm colors of *The Procuress* relate it to paintings of the Rembrandt school (styled after the painter Rembrandt [1606–1669]) of the 1650s, but its subject matter and composition reflect influence by paintings of the 1620s by the Utrecht Caravaggists, a group of painters in Utrecht, Netherlands, who stressed a new, international style. Considered

to be earlier than *The Procuress* are two pictures that resemble it because of the color scheme, dominated by reds and yellows, and because they are larger in size and scale than Vermeer's later works. *Christ in the House of Martha and Mary* is similar to compositions by Hendrick Terbrugghen (1588–1629) and Gerrit van Honthorst (1590–1656), who spread the Caravaggesque (having to do with the painting style of Italian painter Caravaggio [c. 1571–1610]) style in Holland. *Diana and Her Companions*, Vermeer's only mythological subject, is also suggestive of Italy. It is his only painting of figures in a landscape setting.

After these three diverse experiments, which may have owed something to Vermeer's familiarity with works in his father's stock of art, he painted the *Girl Asleep at a Table*, in which he used the warm range of colors of his other early pictures but in terms of subject matter and composition plunged into the mainstream of current Delft painting.

The Soldier and Laughing Girl, marked the shift between Vermeer's early and mature works in that pointillé (gleaming highlights of thick layers of paint, which brightens the surface) appeared for the first time.

Mature period

Vermeer's style just before 1660 is also well represented by *The Cook*. The rich paint surface with its extraordinary quality, the monumental figure perfectly balanced in space and involved in a humble task, and the intense colors dominated by yellow and blue all show Vermeer at the height of his powers.

Following these works, which are assumed to have immediately followed 1660, come the "pearl pictures." *The Concert* of about 1662 and the *Woman with a Water Jug*

of perhaps a year later display the pleasing charms of this period.

More complicated compositions and especially larger space representations mark the major works of the last decade of Vermeer's life. The *Allegory of the Art of Painting* (c.1670) is large and complex in both composition and meaning. On the whole it is not influenced by the hardness and dryness that weakened his later works, such as the *Allegory of the Catholic Faith*.

The quietness, peacefulness, order, and unchanging world of Vermeer's art provide hints of immortality, or the idea that one cannot be affected by death. Perhaps that is why this painter, whose works appear to be as clear as the light of day, has always been thought to be mysterious.

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**JULES
VERNE**

Born: February 8, 1828

Nantes, France

Died: March 24, 1905

Amiens, France

French novelist and writer

The French novelist Jules Verne was the first authentic writer of modern science fiction. The best of his works, such as *Twenty Thousand Leagues Under the Sea* and *Journey to the Center of the Earth*, are characterized by his intelligent foresight into the technical achievements that are within man's grasp.

Early life

Jules Gabriel Verne was born on February 8, 1828, in Nantes, France, the eldest son of a prosperous lawyer, Pierre Verne, and his wife Sophie. Raised in a middle-class family, Jules despised his parents' constant drive to achieve middle-class respectability. Always rebellious but unsuccessful, Verne learned to escape into his own world of imagination. These feelings would show up in many of Verne's works as an adult.

An otherwise uneventful childhood was marked by one major event. In his twelfth year, Jules worked as a cabin boy on an ocean-going ship. The ship was intercepted by his father before it went to sea, and Jules is said to have promised his parents that in the future he "would travel only in imagination"—a prediction fulfilled in a manner his parents could not have imagined.

Career as a playwright

In 1847 Verne went to Paris, France, to study law, although privately he was already planning a literary career. Owing to the friendship he made with French author Alexandre Dumas the Elder (1802–1870), Verne's first play, *Broken Straws*, was produced—with some success—in 1850. From 1852 to 1855 he held a steady and low-pay-



Jules Verne.

ing position as secretary of a Paris theater, the Théâtre Lyrique. He continued to write comedies and operettas and began contributing short stories to a popular magazine, *Le Musée des familles*.

During a visit to Amiens, France, in May 1856, Verne met and fell in love with the widowed daughter of an army officer, Madame Morel (née Honorine de Viane), whom he married the following January. The circumstance that his wife's brother was a stockbroker may have influenced Verne in making the unexpected decision to embrace this profession. Membership in the Paris Exchange did not seriously interfere with his literary labors,

however, because he adopted a rigorous timetable, rising at five o'clock in order to put in several hours researching and writing before beginning his day's work at the Bourse.

First novels

Verne's first long work of fiction, *Five Weeks in a Balloon*, took the form of an account of a journey by air over central Africa, at that time largely unexplored. The book, published in January 1863, was an immediate success. He then decided to retire from stockbroking and to devote himself full time to writing.

Verne's next few books were immensely successful at the time and are still counted among the best he wrote. *A Journey to the Center of the Earth* (1864) describes the adventures of a party of explorers and scientists who descend the crater of an Icelandic volcano and discover an underground world. *The Adventures of Captain Hatteras* (1866) centers on an expedition to the North Pole (not actually reached by Robert Peary until 1909). In *From the Earth to the Moon* (1865) and its sequel, *Round the Moon* (1870), Verne describes how two adventurous Americans—joined, naturally, by a Frenchman—arrange to be fired in a hollow projectile from a gigantic cannon that lifts them out of Earth's gravity field and takes them close to the moon. Verne not only pictured the state of weightlessness his "astronauts" experienced during their flight, but also he had the vision to locate their launching site in Florida, where nearly all of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's (NASA) space launches take place today.

Later works

Verne wrote his two masterpieces when he was in his forties. *Twenty Thousand Leagues*

Under the Sea (1870) relates the voyages of the submarine *Nautilus*, built and commanded by the mysterious Captain Nemo, one of the literary figures in whom Verne incorporated many of his own character traits. *Around the World in Eighty Days* (1873) is the story of a successful bet made by a typical Englishman, Phineas Fogg, a character said to have been modeled on Verne's father, who had a mania for punctuality, or the art of timeliness.

Other popular novels include *The Mysterious Island* (1875) and *Michael Strogoff* (1876). Verne's total literary output comprised nearly eighty books, but many of them are of little value or interest today. One noteworthy feature of all his work is its moral idealism, which earned him in 1884 the personal congratulations of Pope Leo XIII (1810–1903). "If I am not always what I ought to be," Verne once wrote, "my characters will be what I should like to be." His interest in scientific progress was balanced by his religious faith, and in some of his later novels (such as *The Purchase of the North Pole*, 1889), he showed himself to be aware of the social dangers of uncontrolled technological advance.

Verne the man

Verne's personality was complex. Though capable of bouts of extreme liveliness and given to joking and playing practical jokes, he was basically a shy man, happiest when alone in his study or when sailing the English Channel in a converted fishing boat.

In 1886 Verne was the victim of a shooting accident, which left him disabled. The man that shot him proved to be a nephew who was suffering from mental instability.

This incident served to reinforce Verne's natural tendency toward depression. Although he served on the city council of Amiens two years later, he spent his old age in retirement. In 1902 he became partially blind and he died on March 24, 1905 in Amiens.

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AMERIGO VESPUCCI

Born: March 9, 1451

Florence, Italy

Died: February 22, 1512

Seville, Spain

Italian navigator

A Florentine navigator and pilot major of Castile, Spain, Amerigo Vespucci, for whom America is named, played a major part in exploring the New World.

Childhood

The father of Amerigo Vespucci was Nastagio Vespucci, and his uncle was the learned Dominican Giorgio Antonio Vespucci, who had charge of Amerigo's education. The entire family was cultured and friendly with the Medici rulers of Florence, a family that ruled Italy from the 1400s to 1737. Domenico Ghirlandaio (1449–1494) painted Amerigo in a family portrait when the youth was about nineteen. However, the explorer had reached his forties by the time he began his voyage to America, so Ghirlandaio's painting shows only an approximate idea of Vespucci's mature appearance.

It is known that Vespucci visited France, in his uncle's company, when he was about twenty-four years old, and that his father intended for him a business career. He did get involved in business, first in Florence and then in Seville, Spain, in a bank. Later, in Seville, he entered a partnership with a fellow Florentine, Gianetto Berardi, and this lasted until Berardi's death at the end of 1495.

Meanwhile, Christopher Columbus (1451–1506) had made his first two voyages to the West Indies, and he returned from the second in June 1496. At this time, he and Vespucci met and talked, and Amerigo appears to have been doubtful of Columbus's belief that he had already reached the outskirts of Asia. Moreover, Vespucci's curiosity about the new lands had been aroused, together with a determination—though no longer young—to see them himself.



Amerigo Vespucci.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

First voyage

According to a controversial letter, Vespucci embarked from Cadiz, Spain, in a Spanish fleet on May 10, 1497. Serious doubts have been raised about the letter's authenticity (based on fact), because dates in the letter do not coordinate with authenticated events, and because the voyage, if made, presents serious geographical problems and seems to have passed unnoticed by the cartographers (mapmakers) and historians of the time.

If the letter is real, the ships passed through the West Indies—sighting no islands—and in thirty-seven days reached the

mainland somewhere in Central America. This would predate Columbus's discovery of the mainland of Venezuela by a year. On their return to Spain, Vespucci's men discovered the inhabited island of "Iti," identified by some as Bermuda. However, by 1522 the Bermudas were unpopulated. The expedition returned to Cadiz in October 1498.

Vespucci, in all probability, voyaged to America at the time noted, but he did not have command and as yet had had no practical experience piloting a ship. Inexperience could explain many of the errors in the letter, but the strong likelihood remains that the letter was altered.

In 1499 Vespucci sailed again, and this time there is proof of the expedition besides his own letters. His education had included mathematics, and he had surely learned a great deal from his first crossing. From Cadiz, they first dropped to the Cape Verde Islands and then divided forces in the Atlantic. Vespucci explored to Cape Santo Agostinho, at the shoulder of Brazil, after which he coasted westward past the Maracaibo Gulf. This may have been the first expedition to touch Brazil as well as the first to cross the Equator in New World waters. During these travels, Vespucci probably discovered the mouth of the Amazon River.

A new world

Two years later Amerigo went on his most important voyage, this time for King Manuel I (1469–1521) to Brazil. Vespucci, having already been to the Brazilian shoulder, seemed the person best qualified to go as an observer with the new expedition. Vespucci did not command at the start but ultimately took charge at the request of the Portuguese officers.

This voyage traced the South American coast from a point above Cape São Roque to Patagonia. Among the important discoveries were Guanabara Bay (Rio de Janeiro) and the Rio de la Plata, which soon began to appear on maps as Rio Jordán. The expedition returned by way of Sierra Leone and the Azores, and Vespucci, in a letter to Florence, called South America Mundus Novus (New World).

In 1503 Amerigo sailed in Portuguese service again to Brazil, but this expedition failed to make new discoveries. The fleet broke up, the Portuguese commander's ship disappeared, and Vespucci could proceed only a little past Bahia before returning to Lisbon, Portugal, in 1504. He never sailed again.

Vespucci's legacy

In 1507 a group of scholars at St-Dié in Lorraine brought out a book of geography entitled "Cosmographiae introductio." One of the authors, Martin Waldseemüller, suggested the name America, especially for the Brazilian part of the New World, in honor of "the illustrious man who discovered it." After some debate, the name was eventually adopted.

During his last years, Amerigo held the office of pilot major, and it became his duty to train pilots, examine them for ability in their craft, and collect data regarding New World navigation. He remained pilot major until his death on February 22, 1512, a month short of his fifty-eighth birthday.

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VICTORIA

Born: May 24, 1819

London, England

Died: January 22, 1901

Isle of Wight, England

English queen

Victoria was queen of Great Britain and Ireland from 1837 to 1901 and empress of India from 1876 to 1901. During her reign, England grew into an empire of 4 million square miles and 124 million people. As queen, she saw slavery end in the colonies, saw her country undertake successful wars in the Crimea, Egypt, the Sudan, and South Africa, acquired the Suez Canal, and established constitutions in Australia and Canada.



Victoria.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Early life and the throne

Alexandrina Victoria was born in Kensington Palace, London, on May 24, 1819. She was the only child of Edward, Duke of Kent (1767–1820), by Mary Louis Victoria (1786–1861). Her father died when she was very young and her early years were disrupted by family arguments. She grew up under her mother's care and that of Louisa Lehzen, her German governess. The education Victoria received from Lehzen was limited, and she spoke only German until she was three years old.

From 1832 Victoria's mother took her on extended tours through England. On May 24,

1837, she came of age, and on June 20, after the death of her uncle William IV (1765–1837), she inherited the throne. Her chief advisers at first were Prime Minister Lord Melbourne, a Whig (or a member of the liberal political party), and Baron Stockmar, a German sent to London by her uncle King Leopold of the Belgians as adviser to his eighteen-year-old niece. On June 28, 1838, her coronation (crowning ceremony) took place.

In October her first cousin Albert Edward (1819–1861) of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, came to London. Victoria fell in love with him instantly, proposed to him, and they were married on February 10, 1840. It was a happy marriage and restored the influence of the Crown, which had weakened during the reigns of those that ruled before her. Prince Albert was granted a thirty-thousand-pound annual income by Parliament, the governing body of Great Britain. He also was named regent (acting ruler) in the event of the queen's death in childbirth, and in 1857 was made Prince Consort by Victoria.

In June 1842 Victoria made her first railway journey from Slough, the station nearest Windsor Castle, to Paddington, and in that same year she first went to Scotland, traveling by sea. In 1843 Victoria and Albert visited King Louis Philippe (1773–c.1850). She was the first English monarch to land in France since Henry VIII (1491–1547) visited Francis I (1494–1547) in 1520. King Louis Philippe's return visit was the first voluntary visit to England of any French ruler. In 1845 Victoria, with Albert, made the first of many trips to Germany, staying at Albert's birthplace, Rosenau.

Queen of England

In 1844 Queen Victoria had Osborne Palace built for her on the Isle of Wight and

in 1848 Balmoral Castle in Scotland. Until the end of her life she spent part of each spring and fall in these places. In 1851 she and Prince Albert were much occupied with the Great Exhibition, a world's fair held in London and the first of its kind.

In 1856 Victoria and Albert visited Napoleon III (1808–1873) in Paris, and in 1857 the Indian Mutiny against British rule in India led to Victoria's writing that there now existed in England "a universal feeling that India [should] belong to me." In 1858 the British charter that opened trade with Asia, known as the East India Company, was dismantled. That same year Victoria's eldest child, Victoria, married Prince (later Emperor) Frederick of Prussia (today known as Germany). In March 1861 Victoria's mother died, and her eldest son, Albert Edward, while in camp in the Curragh in Ireland, had an affair with an actress called Nelly Clifden. The affair worried Victoria and Albert, who were planning his marriage to Princess Alexandra of Denmark. Meanwhile, Albert was suffering from typhoid fever, a terrible disease that causes fever and other symptoms and is easily spread, and died on December 14, 1861, at the age of forty-two.

In 1862 Victoria's daughter Alice married Prince Louis of Hesse, and a year later her eldest son, the Prince of Wales, married Princess Alexandra of Denmark. Victoria supported Prussia during its war with Denmark over Schleswig-Holstein (a state in northwest Germany) and she approved Russia's brutal crushing of Poland's national uprising in 1863. In 1865 in the Seven Weeks War between Prussia and Austria, Victoria was again pro-Prussian. In 1867 Victoria entertained the Khedive of Egypt and the Sultan of Turkey.

In the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 between France and Prussia, Victoria was still pro-Prussian, though she welcomed the French empress Eugénie and allowed her and the emperor to live at Chislehurst. In 1873 Prime Minister William Gladstone (1809–1898) resigned, and in 1874, to Victoria's delight, Benjamin Disraeli (1804–1881) became prime minister, the chief advisor to the throne. He called the plump, tiny queen "The Faery" and admitted he loved her. That same year Victoria's son Prince Alfred married Marie, daughter of the Russian czar (king), who insisted she be called "Imperial," not "Royal Highness." This encouraged Victoria to look into officially assuming the title "Empress of India," which she did on May 1, 1876.

In 1875 Disraeli bought the majority of the Suez Canal, a key waterway for trade in the Mediterranean Sea, from the bankrupt Khedive of Egypt. That same year Gladstone roused the country with stories of "Bulgarian atrocities" where twelve thousand Bulgarian Christians had been murdered by the Turks. In 1877 Russia declared war on Turkey; Victoria and Disraeli were pro-Turk, sending a private warning to the czar of Russia that, were he to advance, Britain would join in the fight against Russia. In 1878 at the Congress of Berlin, Disraeli obtained, as he told Victoria, "peace with honour."

Last years

In 1887 Victoria's golden jubilee (fifty years in power) was celebrated, and ten years later, her diamond jubilee (sixty years in power) was magnificently celebrated. In 1899 the Boer War broke out, where British soldiers fought against Dutch forces in South Africa. In 1900 Victoria went to Ireland,

where most of the soldiers who fought on the British side were recruited. In August she signed the Australian Commonwealth Bill, bringing Australia in the British Empire, and in October lost a grandson in the war.

On January 22, 1901, Queen Victoria died. At sixty-three years, Queen Victoria enjoyed the longest reign in British history. During her reign the British crown was no longer powerful but remained very influential. The Victorian age witnessed the birth of the modern world through industry, scientific discovery, and the expansion of the British empire. Her reign also witnessed the beginnings of pollution, unemployment, and other problems that would plague the twentieth century.

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GORE VIDAL

Born: October 3, 1925

West Point, New York

American writer

Gore Vidal is one of America's most important literary figures on the basis of an enormous quantity of work, including novels, essays, plays, and short stories.

Influenced by politics

Eugene Luther Gore Vidal was born into a family long important in American politics on October 3, 1925, in West Point, New York. His maternal grandfather was Thomas P. Gore, senator from Oklahoma; his father, Eugene Luther Vidal, was director of air commerce under President Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945); and he is distantly related to Albert Gore (1948–), vice president of the United States in the administration of President Bill Clinton (1946–). Although Vidal was never close to his mother, Nina, he had to live with her after his parent's divorce in 1935. As a child Vidal spent long hours in his grandfather's vast library. There young Vidal began to develop his love of literature and history.

The importance of politics in Vidal's life is obvious from his statement, "The only thing I've ever really wanted in my life was to be president." But Vidal did more than talk: he was the Democratic Party candidate for Congress from New York's 29th District (Dutchess County) in 1960; he served in the President's Advisory Committee on the Arts under John F. Kennedy (1917–1963) from 1961 to 1963; he was a cofounder of the New Party, backing Senator Eugene McCarthy (1916–), from 1968 to 1971; he was cochairman and secretary of state-designate of the People's Party in the period 1970–1972; and he ran unsuccessfully for the nomination as the Democratic Party's senatorial candidate in California in 1982.

Literature wins over politics

Although always involved in politics, Vidal was a central figure in literature after 1946. In that year, while working as an editor at E. P. Dutton, he published his first novel, *Williwaw*, based on his service during the last years of World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Germany, Japan, and Italy—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States).

After the poorly received *In a Yellow Wood* in 1947, Vidal had his first best-seller with *The City and the Pillar*, a successful but scandalous novel about a homosexual (a person sexually attracted to a member of their own sex). Although many critics termed it groundbreaking because the hero is an all-American youth, its tragic ending is rather conventional for its time. It may or may not be coincidence that his next five novels were negatively reviewed and were all commercial failures.

In 1954 Vidal developed what he called his five-year plan—that is, to go to Hollywood, write for films and television, and make enough money to be financially independent for the rest of his life. Between 1956 and 1970 he wrote or collaborated on seven screenplays, including the film version of Tennessee Williams's (1911–1983) *Suddenly Last Summer*, on which he worked with the playwright in 1959. Between 1954 and 1960 he also completed fifteen television plays.

Returns to the novel

After the novel *Washington, D.C.*, in 1967, he wrote another novel, *Myra Brecken-*



Gore Vidal.

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ridge (1968), the saga of a homosexual male converted into a female via a sex change operation, called by Nat Hentoff in the *Village Voice*, “the first popular book of perverse pornography.” After a long stay on the best-seller lists, it was made into a movie.

Two Sisters (1970) was followed by ten novels, a number of them about politics. They were *Burr* (1973), *Myron* (1974), *1876* (1976), *Kalki* (1978), *Creation* (1981), *Duluth* (1983), *Lincoln* (1984), *Empire* (1987), *Hollywood* (1990), *The Smithsonian Institution* (1998), and *The American Presidency* (1998), the text of Vidal's three-part British television series.

Fame as a critic

While the general public enjoyed Vidal as a novelist, more sophisticated readers and the critics praised him more for his essays, many of which had appeared first in periodicals, published between 1962 and 1993. *The Second American Revolution* (1982) won the National Book Critics Circle Award for Criticism in 1982 and *United States* won the National Book Award in Nonfiction in 1993.

Continuing with literary nonfiction, Vidal released a critically successful memoir in 1995, *Palimpsest: A Memoir*. In it he reflected upon a life peopled with such interesting friends and acquaintances as his relative Jackie Kennedy (1929–1994), President John F. Kennedy (1917–1963), and many others he mixed with in the literary and political scene. In 2000, Vidal's novel *The Golden Age* was published.

In May 2000, Vidal gained controversy by announcing plans to attend the execution of Timothy McVeigh, who was convicted of masterminding the bombing of a federal office building in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, in 1995, resulting in the deaths of 169 people. Due to scheduling conflicts, Vidal was unable to attend.

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VIRGIL

Born: October 15, 70 B.C.E.

Andes, Italy

Died: September 21, 19 B.C.E.

Brundisium, Italy

Roman poet

Virgil, or Publius Vergilius Maro, is regarded as one of the greatest Roman poets. The Romans regarded his *Aeneid*, published two years after his death, as their national epic (a long poem centered around a legendary hero).

Early years and education

Virgil was born on October 15, 70 B.C.E., at Andes near Mantua in Cisalpine Gaul (modern Mantova, 20 to 25 miles southwest of Verona, Italy) of humble parentage. His father, either a potter or a laborer, worked for a certain Magius, who, attracted by the intelligence and industry of his employee, allowed him to marry his daughter, Magia. Because the marriage improved his position, Virgil's father was able to give his son the education reserved for children of higher status. Virgil began his study in Cremona, continued it in Milan, and then went on to Rome to study rhetoric (the study of writing), medicine, and mathematics before giving himself to philosophy (the study of knowledge) under Siro the Epicurean. His education prepared him for the profession of law (the alternative was a military career), but he spoke only once in court. He was shy, retiring, and of halting speech—no match for the aggressive, well-spoken lawyers of the Roman court.

Virgil returned from Rome to his family's farm near Mantua to spend his days in study and writing and to be near his parents. His father was blind and possibly dying. His mother had lost two other sons, one in infancy, the other at the age of seventeen. When Virgil's father died, she remarried and bore another son, Valerius Proculus, to whom Virgil left half his fortune.

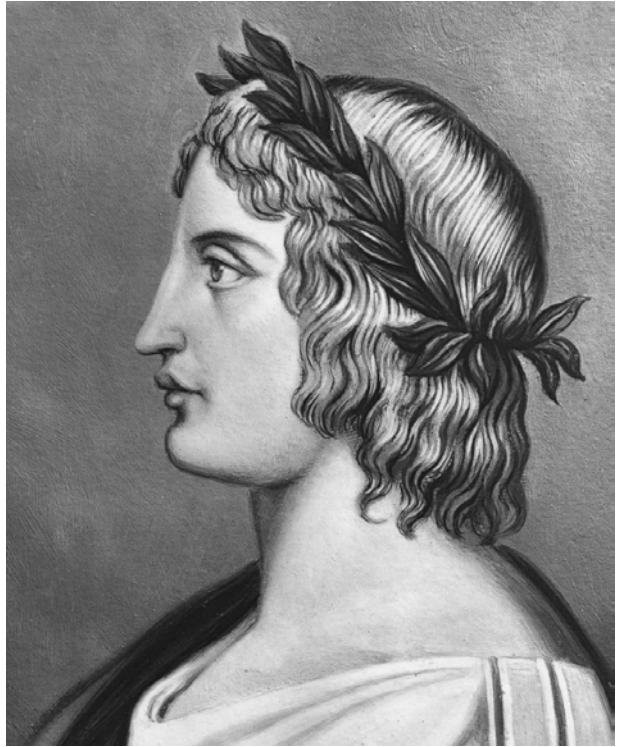
In appearance Virgil was tall and dark, his face reflecting the rural lower-class stock from which he came. His health was never strong. Horace (65–8 B.C.E.) tells us that on a journey to Brundisium in 37 B.C.E., he and Virgil were unable to join their fellow travelers in their games for he had sore eyes and Virgil was suffering from indigestion. Poor health and his shy nature and love of study made him a recluse, or one who withdraws from the world.

The farm of Virgil's father was among the land confiscated (forcefully taken) as payment for the victorious soldiers of the Battle of Philippi (42 B.C.E.). But Augustus (63 B.C.E.–14 C.E.) restored the farm to the family. Virgil then rendered thanks to young Caesar in his first *Eclogue*.

The final phrase of the epitaph (etching on a tombstone) on Virgil's supposed tomb at Naples runs "cecini pascua, rura, duces (I sang of pastures, of sown fields, and of leaders)." This summarizes the progression from *Eclogues* to *Georgics* to *Aeneid* (which appeared in that order) and, as has been said, "proposes a miniature of the evolution of civilization from shepherds to farmers to warriors."

Pastoral poems

The *Eclogues* (this, the more usual title, means "Select Poems"; they are also known as



Virgil.

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Bucolics, or "Pastorals") were written between 42 B.C.E. and 37 B.C.E. These ten poems, songs of shepherds, all about one hundred lines long, were modeled on the pastoral poems, or *Idylls*, of Theocritus of Syracuse (c. 310–250 B.C.E.).

Eclogue 4, the so-called Messianic *Eclogue*, is the best known. Written in 40 B.C.E., during the temporary rule of Pollio (76 B.C.E.–4 C.E.), Virgil's benefactor (one who gives financial aid) a year or two previously, it hails the birth of a baby boy who will usher in a golden age of peace and prosperity in which even nature herself will participate. The golden age is the new

era of peace for which Augustus was responsible, and the child is thought to be the expected offspring of Augustus and Scribonia (the infant turned out to be a girl).

The Georgics ("Points of Farming"), a didactic (intended to instruct) poem in four books, was written from 37 B.C.E. to 30 B.C.E. Book 1 treats the farming of land; Book 2 is about growing trees, especially the vine and the olive; Book 3 concerns cattle raising; and Book 4, beekeeping.

The Aeneid

The *Aeneid* is one of the most complex and subtle works ever written. An epic poem of about ten thousand lines and divided into twelve books, it tells of the efforts of the Trojan hero, Aeneas, to find a new homeland for himself and his small band of followers, from the time he escapes from burning Troy until he founds Lavinium (in Italy), the parent town of Rome.

Shortly after Actium, the final battle of the Roman civil war 31 B.C.E., Augustus, the victor, was looking for a poet who could give to his accomplishments their proper literary enhancement in an epic poem. Maecenas (c. 70–8 B.C.E.) offered the commission to Propertius and to Horace, both of whom declined as graciously as possible. Virgil had been less reluctant than the other two and found, through his imagination, a solution. His epic of Augustan Rome would be cast in mythological form, making use of the legend of the founding of Rome by Aeneas, a Trojan hero mentioned by Homer (ninth or eighth century B.C.E.), who, tradition held, escaped from Troy and went to Italy. Virgil's models were the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* of Homer.

The *Aeneid* can be divided into two parts of six books each or into three parts of four books each. Books 1 through 4, organized around Aeneas's narration of the destruction of Troy and his wanderings, have Carthage as their dramatic setting; Books 5 through 8 act as entertainment between the drama of 1 through 4 and 9 through 12, the story of the fighting in Italy. Moreover, the even-numbered books are highly dramatic, while the odd-numbered books reflect a lessening of tension and have less dramatic value.

Last years

Virgil worked on the *Aeneid* for the last eleven years of his life. The composition of it, from a prose (writing) outline, was never easy for him. Augustus once wrote asking to see part of the uncompleted work. Virgil replied that he had nothing to send and added, "I have undertaken a task so difficult that I think I must have been mentally ill to have begun it."

In 19 B.C.E. Virgil resolved to spend three more years on his epic after taking a trip to Greece, perhaps to check on some details necessary for his revision. At Megara he contracted a fever and became so ill that he returned to Brundisium, where he died on September 21. He left instructions that the *Aeneid* should be burned, but Augustus refused and ordered Varius and Tucca, two friends of the poet, to edit it for publication. It appeared in 17 B.C.E.

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ANTONIO VIVALDI

Born: March 4, 1678

Venice, Italy

Died: July 26, 1741

Vienna, Austria

Italian composer, violinist and priest

Antonio Vivaldi was an Italian violinist and composer whose concertos—pieces for one or more instruments—were widely known and influential throughout Europe.

Childhood and early career

Antonio Vivaldi was born in Venice, Italy, on March 4, 1678. His first music teacher was his father, Giovanni Battista Vivaldi. The elder Vivaldi was a well-respected violinist, employed at the church of St. Mark's. It is possible, though not proved, that as a boy Antonio also studied with the composer Giovanni Legrenzi (1626–1690).

Antonio was trained for a clerical (religious service) as well as a musical life. After going through the various introductory stages, he was ordained (authorized) a priest in March 1703. His active career, however, was devoted to music. In the autumn of

1703 he was appointed as a violin teacher at the Ospitale della Pietà in Venice. A few years later he was made conductor of the orchestra at the same institution. Under Vivaldi's direction, this orchestra gave many brilliant concerts and achieved an international reputation.

Vivaldi remained at the Pietà until 1740. But his long years there were broken by the numerous trips he took, for professional purposes, to Italian and foreign cities. He went, among other places, to Vienna, Italy, from 1729 to 1730 and to Amsterdam, Netherlands, from 1737 to 1738. Within Italy he traveled to various cities to direct performances of his operas. He left Venice for the last time in 1740. He died in Vienna on July 26 or 27, 1741.

Vivaldi's music

Vivaldi was very productive in vocal and instrumental music, sacred and secular (non-religious). According to the latest research, he composed over seven hundred pieces—ranging from sonatas (instrumental compositions usually with three or four movements) and operas (musical dramas consisting of vocal and instrumental pieces) to concertos (musical compositions for one or two vocal performers set against a full orchestra).

Today the vocal music of Vivaldi is little known. But in his own day he was famous and successful as an opera composer. Most of his operas were written for Venice, but some were performed throughout Italy in Rome, Florence, Verona, Vicenza, Ancona, and Mantua.

Vivaldi was also one of the great eighteenth century violin virtuosos, or musicians with superb ability. This virtuosity is reflected in his music, which made new demands on



Antonio Vivaldi.

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violin technique. In his instrumental works he naturally favored the violin. He wrote the majority of his sonatas for one or two violins and thorough-bass. Of his concertos, 221 are for solo violin and orchestra. Other concertos are for a variety of solo instruments, including the flute, the clarinet, the trumpet, and the mandolin. He also wrote concertos for several solo instruments, concerti grossi, and concertos for full orchestra. The concerto grosso features a small group of solo players, set against the full orchestra. The concerto for orchestra features differences of style rather than differences of instruments.

Orchestral music

Vivaldi's concertos are generally in three movements, arranged in the order of fast, slow, fast. The two outer movements are in the same key; the middle movement is in the same key or in a closely related key. Within movements, the music proceeds on the principle of alternation: passages for the solo instrument(s) alternate with passages for the full orchestra. The solo instrument may extend the material played by the orchestra, or it may play quite different material of its own. In either case, the alternation between soloist and orchestra builds up a tension that can be very dramatic.

The orchestra in Vivaldi's time was different, of course, from a modern one in its size and constitution. Although winds were sometimes called for, strings constituted the main body of players. In a Vivaldi concerto, the orchestra is essentially a string orchestra, with one or two harpsichords or organs to play the thorough-bass.

Some of Vivaldi's concertos are pieces of program music, for they give musical descriptions of events or natural scenes. *The Seasons*, for instance, consists of four concertos representing the four seasons. But in his concertos the "program" does not determine the formal structure of the music. Some musical material may imitate the call of a bird or the rustling of leaves; but the formal plan of the concerto is maintained.

Vivaldi's concertos were widely known during and after his lifetime. They were copied and admired by another musician, Johann Sebastian Bach (1685–1750). In musical Europe of the eighteenth century Vivaldi was one of the great names.

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VOLTAIRE

Born: November 21, 1694

Paris, France

Died: May 30, 1778

Paris, France

French poet and philosopher

The French poet, dramatist, historian, and philosopher Voltaire was an outspoken and aggressive enemy of every injustice but especially of religious intolerance (the refusal to accept or respect any differences).

Early years

Voltaire was born as François Marie Arouet, perhaps on November 21, 1694, in Paris, France. He was the youngest of the three surviving children of François Arouet and Marie Marguerite Daumand, although

Voltaire claimed to be the “bastard [born out of wedlock] of Rochebrune,” a minor poet and songwriter. Voltaire’s mother died when he was seven years old, and he developed a close relationship with his godfather, a free-thinker. His family belonged to the upper-middle-class, and young Voltaire was able to receive an excellent education. A clever child, Voltaire studied under the Jesuits at the Collège Louis-le-Grand from 1704 to 1711. He displayed an astonishing talent for poetry and developed a love of the theater and literature.

Emerging poet

When Voltaire was drawn into the circle of the seventy-two-year-old poet Abbé de Chaulieu, his father packed him off to Caen, France. Hoping to stop his son’s literary ambitions and to turn his mind to pursuing law, Arouet placed the youth as secretary to the French ambassador at The Hague, the seat of government in the Netherlands. Voltaire fell in love with a French refugee, Catherine Olympe Dunoyer, who was pretty but barely educated. Their marriage was stopped. Under the threat of a *lettre de cachet* (an official letter from a government calling for the arrest of a person) obtained by his father, Voltaire returned to Paris in 1713 and was contracted to a lawyer. He continued to write and he renewed his pleasure-loving acquaintances. In 1717 Voltaire was at first exiled (forced to leave) and then imprisoned in the Bastille, an enormous French prison, for writings that were offensive to powerful people.

As early as 1711, Voltaire, eager to test himself against Sophocles (c. 496–406 B.C.E.) and Pierre Corneille (1606–1684), had written a first draft of *Oedipe*. On November 18,



Voltaire.

1718, the revised (changed for improvement) play opened in Paris to a sensational success. The *Henriade*, begun in the Bastille and published in 1722, was Voltaire's attempt to compete against Virgil (70–19 B.C.E.) and to give France an epic poem (a long poem centered around a legendary hero).

While Voltaire stayed in England (1726–1728) he was greatly honored; Alexander Pope (1688–1744), William Congreve (1670–1729), Horace Walpole (1717–1797), and Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke (1658–1751), praised him; and his works earned Voltaire one thousand pounds. Voltaire learned English by attend-

ing the theater daily, script in hand. He also absorbed English thought, especially that of John Locke (1632–1704) and Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727), and he saw the relationship between free government and creative business developments. More importantly, England suggested the relationship of wealth to freedom. The only protection, even for a brilliant poet, was wealth.

At Cirey and at court, 1729–1753

Voltaire returned to France in 1729. One product of his English stay was the *Lettres anglaises* (1734), which have been called “the first bomb dropped on the Old Regime.” Their explosive potential (something that shows future promise) included such remarks as, “It has taken centuries to do justice to humanity, to feel it was horrible that the many should sow and the few should reap.” Written in the style of letters to a friend in France, the twenty-four “letters” were a clever and seductive (desirable) call for political, religious, and philosophic (having to do with knowledge) freedom; for the betterment of earthly life; for employing the method of Sir Francis Bacon (1561–1626), Locke, and Newton; and generally for striving toward social progress.

Prior to 1753 Voltaire did not have a home; but for fifteen years following 1733 he had stayed in Cirey, France, in a château (country house) owned by Madame du Châtelet. While still living with her patient husband and son, Émilie made generous room for Voltaire. They were lovers; and they worked together intensely on physics and metaphysics, a philosophy which investigates the nature of reality.

Honored by a respectful correspondence

with Frederick II of Prussia (1712–1786), Voltaire was then sent on diplomatic (having to do with international affairs) missions to Prussia. But Voltaire's new interest was his affair with his widowed niece, Madame Denis. This affair continued its passionate and stormy course to the last years of his life. Émilie, too, found solace in other lovers. The simple and peaceful time of Cirey ended with her death in 1749.

Voltaire then accepted Frederick's repeated invitation to live at court. He arrived at Potsdam (now in Germany) with Madame Denis in July 1750. First flattered by Frederick's hospitality, Voltaire then gradually became anxious, quarrelsome, and finally bored. He left, angry, in March 1753, having written in December 1752: "I am going to write for my instruction a little dictionary used by Kings. 'My friend' means 'my slave.'" Frederick took revenge by delaying permission for Voltaire's return to France, by putting him under a week's house arrest at the German border, and by seizing all his money.

Sage of Ferney, 1753–1778

Voltaire's literary productivity did not slow down, although his concerns shifted as the years passed while at his estate in Ferney, France. He was best known as a poet until in 1751 *Le Siècle de Louis XIV* marked him also as a historian. Other historical works include *Histoire de Charles XII*; *Histoire de la Russie sous Pierre le Grand*; and the universal history, *Essai sur l'histoire générale et sur les mœurs et l'esprit des nations*, published in 1756 but begun at Cirey. An extremely popular dramatist until 1760, he began to be outdone by competition from the plays of William Shakespeare (1564–1616) that he had introduced to France.

The philosophic *conte* (a short story about adventure) was a Voltaire invention. In addition to his famous *Candide* (1759), others of his stories in this style include *Micromégas*, *Vision de Babouc*, *Memnon*, *Zadig*, and *Jeannot et Colin*. In addition to the *Lettres Philosophiques* and the work on Newton (1642–1727), others of Voltaire's works considered philosophic are *Philosophie de l'histoire*, *Le Philosophe ignorant*, *Tout en Dieu*, *Dictionnaire philosophique portatif*, and *Traité de la métaphysique*. Voltaire's poetry includes—in addition to the *Henriade*—the philosophic poems *L'Homme*, *La Loi naturelle*, and *Le Désastre de Lisbonne*, as well as the famous *La Pucelle*, a delightfully naughty poem about Joan of Arc (1412–1431).

Always the champion of liberty, Voltaire in his later years became actively involved in securing justice for victims of persecution, or intense harassment. He became the "conscience of Europe." His activity in the Calas affair was typical. An unsuccessful and depressed young man had hanged himself in his Protestant father's home in Roman Catholic city of Toulouse, France. For two hundred years Toulouse had celebrated the massacre (cruel killings) of four thousand of its Huguenot inhabitants (French Protestants). When the rumor spread that the dead man had been about to abandon Protestantism, the family was seized and tried for murder. The father was tortured; a son was exiled (forced to leave); and the daughters were forcefully held in a convent (a house for nuns). Investigation assured Voltaire of their innocence, and from 1762 to 1765 he worked in their behalf. He employed "his friends, his purse, his pen, his credit" to move public opinion to the support of the Calas family. In 1765, Parliament declared the Calas family innocent.

Voltaire's influence continued to be felt after his death in Paris on May 30, 1778.

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WERNHER VON BRAUN

Born: March 23, 1912

Wirnitz, Germany

Died: June 16, 1977

Alexandria, Virginia

German-born American scientist

The German-born American space scientist Wernher von Braun, the “father of space travel,” developed the first practical space rockets and launch vehicles. His advancements were instrumental in space exploration and in putting the first men on the moon.

An inspired student

Born on March 23, 1912, in Wirnitz, Germany, Wernher von Braun's father, Baron Magnus von Braun, was a founder of the German Savings Bank, a member of the Weimar

Republic Cabinet, and minister of agriculture. His mother, the former Emmy von Quistorp, a musician and amateur astronomer (one who studies the universe), was a strong influence on her son, especially after she gave her son a telescope as a present. Wernher spent his childhood in several German cities, as the family moved wherever Magnus was transferred.

At the French Gymnasium, Wernher excelled in languages but failed physics and mathematics. He then attended the Hermann Lietz School at Ettersburg Castle, where he developed an intense interest in astronomy and overcame his failures in other subjects. Fascination with the theories of space flight then prompted him to study mathematics and physics with renewed interest. Before he graduated, he was teaching mathematics and tutoring other students.

Von Braun enrolled in the Charlottenburg Institute of Technology in Berlin. He became an active member of the Verein für Raumschiffahrt (VfR; Society for Space Travel) and an associate of Hermann Oberth (1894–1989), Willy Ley (1906–1969), and other leading German rocket enthusiasts. In 1930 Oberth and von Braun developed a small rocket engine, which was a technical success.

German army rocket program

Adolf Hitler (1889–1945) rose to power and became chancellor (leader) of Germany on January 30, 1933. Still upset about the restrictions of the Treaty of Versailles that ended World War I (1914–18), the German army looked to rebuild its forces. The treaty severely restricted Germany's production of weapons, such as guns and cannons. But the

treaty made no mention of rockets, and German military planners hoped to develop rockets as weapons. They immediately turned to von Braun.

When World War II (1939–45) began, Germany gave rocket development highest priority. While von Braun developed a large rocket named the V-2, the Nazis (Hitler's army) wanted it as a weapon of war. Von Braun had a different vision: space travel.

By 1943 von Braun's rocket complex was the primary target of the Allied forces (America, France, and Great Britain). When Germany was near collapse, von Braun evacuated his staff to an area where the Americans might capture them. He reasoned that the United States was the nation most likely to use his resources for space exploration. The rocket team, which consisted of more than five thousand coworkers and their families, surrendered to U.S. forces on May 2, 1945.

Early U.S. rocket experiments

During questioning by Allied officers, von Braun prepared a report on rocket development and applications in which he predicted trips to the moon, orbiting satellites, and space stations. Recognizing the potential of von Braun's work, the U.S. Army authorized the transfer of von Braun, 112 of his engineers and scientists, 100 V-2 rockets, and the rocket technical data to the United States.

In 1946 the team moved to what is now the White Sands Proving Grounds in New Mexico. In 1950 they relocated to the Redstone Arsenal in Huntsville, Alabama, where von Braun remained for the next twenty years. He used his free time to write about space travel and to correspond with his fam-



Wernher von Braun.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

ily and his cousin, Maria von Quistorp. In early 1947 he obtained permission to return to Germany to marry Maria. They had three children. On April 15, 1955, von Braun and forty of his associates became naturalized citizens.

The Russian space program outpaced that of the United States in the 1950s. When the Russians successfully put *Sputnik I* into space and the U.S. Navy's Vanguard program failed, the United States turned to von Braun's group. Within ninety days, on January 31, 1958, the team launched the free world's first satellite, *Explorer I*on, into orbit.

U.S. space program

After the creation of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), von Braun was appointed director of the George C. Marshall Space Flight Center at Huntsville, Alabama, on July 1, 1960. The space agency sought his advice about techniques later used in landing on the moon. Just before Christmas, 1968, a Saturn V launch vehicle, developed under von Braun's direction, launched *Apollo 8*, the world's first spacecraft to travel to the moon. In March 1970 NASA transferred von Braun to its headquarters in Washington, D.C., where he became deputy associate administrator.

Von Braun resigned from NASA in July 1972 to become vice president for engineering and development with Fairchild Industries of Germantown, Maryland. Besides his work for that aerospace firm, he continued his efforts to promote human space flight, helping to found the National Space Institute in 1975 and serving as its first president. On June 16, 1977, he died of cancer at a hospital in Alexandria, Virginia.

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KURT VONNEGUT

Born: November 11, 1922

Indianapolis, Indiana

American writer, essayist, and dramatist

Kurt Vonnegut is acknowledged as a major voice in American literature and applauded for his subtle criticisms and sharp portrayal of modern society.

Early life

Kurt Vonnegut Jr. was born on November 11, 1922, in Indianapolis, Indiana, the son of a successful architect, Kurt Sr., and his wife, Edith Sophia. Vonnegut was raised along with his sister, Alice, and brother Bernard (whom he spoke of frequently in his works). Fourth-generation Germans, the children were never exposed to their heritage because of the anti-German attitudes that had spread throughout the United States after World War I (1914–18; a war in which many European countries, some Middle Eastern nations, Russia, and the United States fought against Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey). Because of the Great Depression (the severe economic downturn in the 1930s), the Vonneguts lost most of their wealth and the household was never the same. Vonnegut's father fell into severe depression and his mother died after overdosing on sleeping pills the night before Mother's Day. This attainment and loss of the "American Dream" would become the theme of many of Vonnegut's writings.

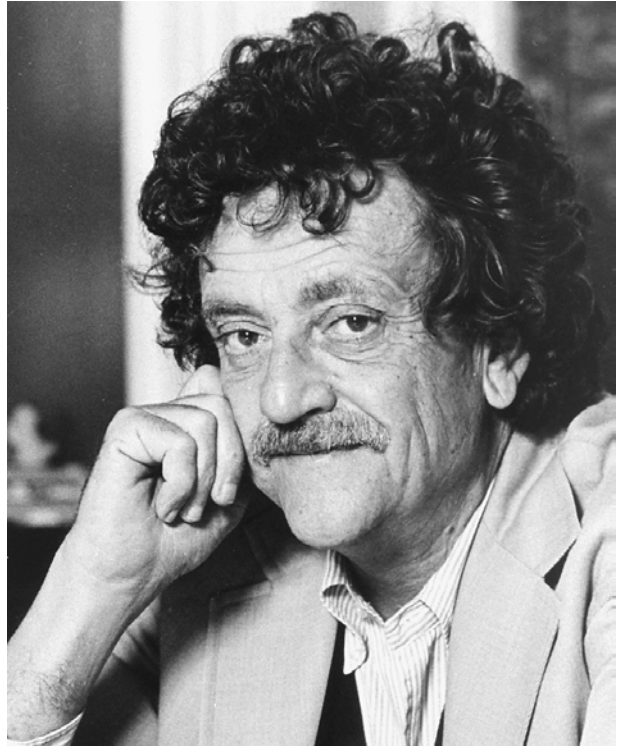
After attending Cornell University, where he majored in chemistry and biology,

he enlisted in the United States Army, serving in the World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Germany, Italy, and Japan—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). This would set the stage for another crucial element for his writings when he was taken prisoner by the German army. Following the war, Vonnegut studied anthropology at the University of Chicago and later moved to Schenectady, New York, to work as a publicist for the General Electric Corporation. During this period, he also began submitting short stories to various journals, and in 1951, he resigned his position at General Electric to devote his time solely to writing.

The novels

Vonnegut published several novels throughout the 1950s and 1960s, beginning with *Player Piano* in 1952. *Player Piano* depicts a fictional city called Ilium in which the people have given control of their lives to a computer humorously named EPICAC, after a substance that causes vomiting. *The Sirens of Titan* (1959) takes place on several different planets, including a thoroughly militarized Mars, where the inhabitants are electronically controlled. The fantastic settings of these works serve primarily as a metaphor (comparison) for modern society, which Vonnegut views as absurd to the point of being surreal (irrational; dreamlike), and as a backdrop for Vonnegut's central focus: the hapless human beings who inhabit these bizarre worlds and struggle with both their environments and themselves.

Vonnegut once again focuses on the role of technology in human society in *Cat's Cradle* (1963), widely considered one of his best



Kurt Vonnegut.

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works. The novel recounts the discovery of a form of ice, called *ice-nine*, which is solid at a much lower temperature than normal ice and is capable of solidifying all water on Earth. *Ice-nine* serves as a symbol of the enormous destructive potential of technology, particularly when developed or used without regard for the welfare of humanity.

Slaughterhouse-Five

Vonnegut's reputation was greatly enhanced in 1969 with the publication of *Slaughterhouse-Five*, an antiwar novel that appeared during the peak of protest against

American involvement in the Vietnam War (1955–75; when American forces aided South Vietnam in their fight against North Vietnam).

Vonnegut described *Slaughterhouse-Five* as a novel he was compelled to write, since it is based on one of the most extraordinary and significant events of his life. During World War II when he was a prisoner of the German Army, Vonnegut witnessed the Allied bombing of Dresden, Germany, which destroyed the city and killed more than one hundred thirty-five thousand people. One of the few to survive, Vonnegut was ordered by his captors to aid in the grisly task of digging bodies from the rubble and destroying them in huge bonfires. Because the city of Dresden had little military value, its destruction went nearly unnoticed in the press. *Slaughterhouse-Five* is Vonnegut's attempt to both document and criticize this event.

Like Vonnegut, the main character of *Slaughterhouse-Five*, named Billy Pilgrim, was present at the bombing of Dresden and has been deeply affected by the experience. His feelings develop into spiritual uncertainty that results in a nervous breakdown. In addition, he suffers from a peculiar condition, of being “unstuck in time,” meaning that he randomly experiences events from his past, present, and future. The novel is therefore a complex, nonchronological (in no order of time) narrative in which images of suffering and loss prevail.

Breakfast of Champions

After the publication of *Slaughterhouse-Five*, Vonnegut entered a period of depression during which he vowed, at one point, never to write another novel. He concentrated,

instead, on lecturing, teaching, and finishing a play, *Happy Birthday, Wanda June*, that he had begun several years earlier. The play, which ran Off-Broadway from October 1970 to March 1971, received mixed reviews. There were several factors which could be interpreted as the cause of Vonnegut's period of depression, including, as he admitted, the approach of his fiftieth birthday and the fact that his children had begun to leave home. Many critics believe that, having at last come to terms with Dresden, he lost the major inspiration for much of his work; others feel that *Slaughterhouse-Five* may have been the single great novel that Vonnegut was capable of writing. Whatever the cause, *Breakfast of Champions* marked the end of his depression and a return to the novel.

In *Breakfast of Champions*, as in most of Vonnegut's work, there are very clear autobiographical tendencies. In this novel however, the author seems to be even more wrapped up in his characters than usual. He appears as Philboyd Sludge, the writer of the book, which stars Dwayne Hoover, a Pontiac dealer (Vonnegut once ran a Saab dealership) who goes berserk after reading a novel by Kilgore Trout, who also represents Vonnegut. Toward the end of the book, Vonnegut arranges a meeting between himself and Trout, whom Robert Merrill calls his “most famous creation,” in which he casts the character loose forever; by this time the previously unsuccessful Trout has become rich and famous and is finally able to stand on his own.

Later work

Breakfast of Champions and *Slapstick, or Lonesome No More* (1976) both examine the widespread feelings of despair and loneliness

that result from the loss of traditional culture in the United States; *Jailbird* (1979) recounts the story of a fictitious participant in the Watergate scandal of the Richard Nixon (1913–1994) administration, a scandal which ultimately led to the resignation of the president; *Galapagos* (1985) predicts the consequences of environmental pollution; and *Hocus-Pocus; or, What's the Hurry, Son?* (1990) deals with the implications and aftermath of the war in Vietnam.

In the 1990s, he also published *Fates Worse Than Death* (1991) and *Timequake* (1997). Before its release Vonnegut noted that *Timequake* would be his last novel. Although many of these works are highly regarded, critics frequently argue that in his later works Vonnegut tends to reiterate themes presented more compellingly in earlier works. Nevertheless, Vonnegut remains one of the most-loved American writers.

Kurt Vonnegut Jr. is currently teaching advanced writing classes at Smith College, and in November of 2000, he was named the State Author of New York.

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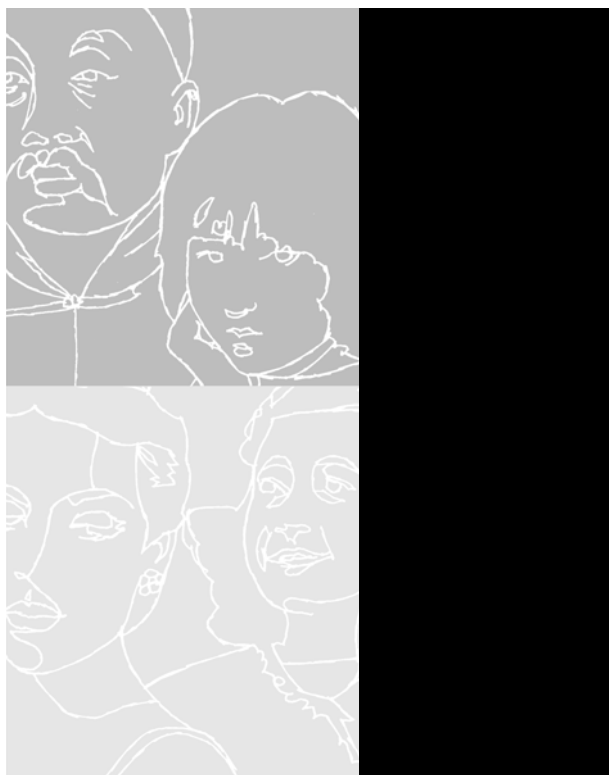
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RICHARD WAGNER

Born: May 22, 1813

Liepzig, Germany

Died: February 13, 1883

Venice, Italy

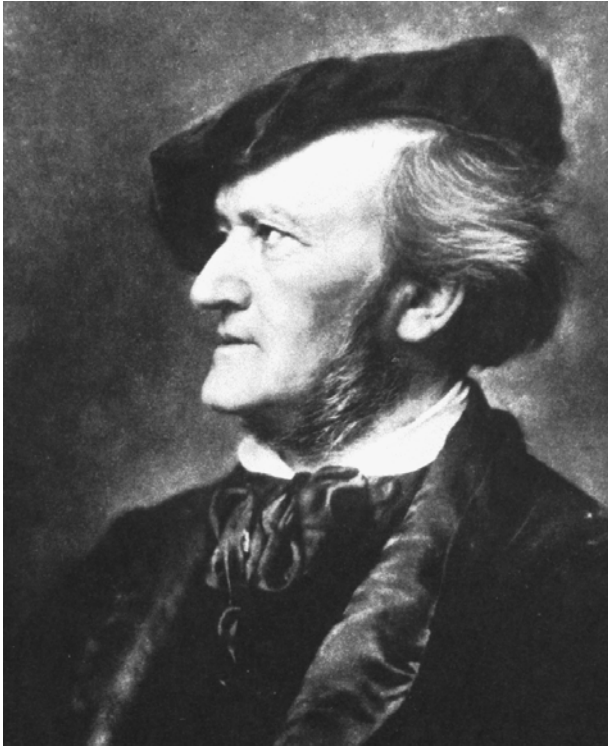
German composer

The German operatic composer Richard Wagner was one of the most important figures of nineteenth-century music. Wagner was also a crucial figure in nineteenth-century cultural history for both his criticism and polemical writing, or writing that attacks established beliefs.

Early life

Wilhelm Richard Wagner was born on May 22, 1813, in Leipzig, Germany, into a middle-class family. Raised along with eight siblings, his father, Friedrich, died shortly after Richard's birth, and within the year his mother, Johanna, married Ludwig Geyer. There is still some controversy as to whether or not Geyer, a traveling actor, was Wagner's real father. As a child, Wagner showed little talent or interest in anything except for writing poetry.

Wagner's musical training was largely left to chance until he was eighteen, when he studied with Theodor Weinlig in Leipzig, Germany, for a year. He began his career in 1833 as choral director in Würzburg and composed



Richard Wagner.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

his early works in imitation of German romantic compositions. Ludwig van Beethoven (1770–1827) was his major idol at this time.

First works

Wagner wrote his first opera, *Die Feen* (The Fairies), in 1833, but it was not produced until after the composer's death. He was music director of the theater in Magdeburg from 1834 to 1836, where his next work, *Das Liebesverbot* (Forbidden Love), loosely based on William Shakespeare's (1564–1616) *Measure for Measure* was performed in 1836. That year he married Minna Planner, a singer-actress active in local theatrical life.

In 1837 Wagner became the first music director of the theater in Riga, Russia (now the capital of Latvia), where he remained until 1839. He then set out for Paris, France, where he hoped to make his fortune. While in Paris, he developed an intense hatred for French musical culture that lasted the remainder of his life, regardless of how often he attempted to have a Parisian success. It was at this time that Wagner, in financial desperation, sold the scenario for *Der fliegende Holländer* (The Flying Dutchman) to the Paris Opéra for use by another composer. Wagner later set to music another version of this tale.

Wagner returned to Germany, settling in Dresden in 1842, where he was in charge of the music for the court chapel. *Rienzi*, a grand opera in imitation of the French style, enjoyed a modest success. In 1845 *Tannhäuser* premiered in Dresden and proved the first undoubted success of Wagner's career. In November of the same year he finished the poem for *Lohengrin* and began composition early in 1846. While at work on *Lohengrin* he also made plans for his tetralogy (a series of four dramas), *Der Ring des Nibelungen* (The Ring of the Nibelungen), being captivated by Norse sagas. In 1845 he prepared the scenario for the first drama of the tetralogy to be written, *Siegfried's Tod* (Siegfried's Death), which later became *Die Götterdämmerung* (The Twilight of the Gods).

Years of exile

Wagner had to flee Dresden in 1849 in the aftermath of the Revolution of 1848, which resulted in an unsuccessful uprising against the German monarchy or king. He settled in Switzerland, first in Zurich and then near Lucerne. He remained in Switzer-

land for the most part for the next fifteen years without steady employment, banished from Germany and forbidden access to German theatrical life. During this time he worked on the *Ring*—this dominated his creative life over the next two decades.

The first production of *Lohengrin* took place in Weimar under Franz Liszt's (1881–1886) direction in 1850 (Wagner was not to see *Lohengrin* until 1861). The year 1850 also saw publication of one of Wagner's most vulgar tracts, *The Jew in Music*, in which he viciously attacked the very existence of Jewish composers and musicians, particularly in German society.

In 1853 Wagner formally began composition on the *Rheingold*; he completed the scoring the following year and then began serious work on the *Walküre*, which was finished in 1856. At this time he was toying with the notion of writing the drama *Tristan and Isolde*. In 1857 he finished the composition of Act II of *Siegfried* and gave himself over entirely to *Tristan*. This work was completed in 1859, but it was mounted in Munich only in 1865.

Last years

In 1860 Wagner received permission to reenter Germany except for Saxony, an area in eastern Germany. He was granted full amnesty (political freedom) in 1862. That year he began the music for *Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg* (The Mastersingers of Nuremberg), which he had first thought of in 1845. The *Meistersinger* was completed in 1867; the first performance took place in Munich the following year. Only then did he pick up the threads of the *Ring* and resume work on Act III of *Siegfried*, which was finished in September

1869, a month that also saw the first performance of the *Rheingold*. He wrote the music for *Götterdämmerung* from 1869 to 1874.

The first entire *Ring* cycle (*Rheingold*, *Walküre*, *Siegfried*, and *Götterdämmerung*) was given at the Festspielhaus, the shrine Wagner built for himself at Bayreuth, in 1876, over thirty years after the idea for it had first come to mind. He finished *Parsifal*, his final drama, in 1882. Wagner died on February 13, 1883, in Venice, Italy, and was buried at Bayreuth.

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ALICE WALKER

Born: February 9, 1944

Eatonton, Georgia

African American novelist

Pulitzer Prize-winning novelist Alice Walker is best known for her stories about African American women who

achieve heroic stature within the borders of their ordinary day-to-day lives.

Early life

Alice Malsenior Walker was born on February 9, 1944, in Eatonton, Georgia, to Willie Lee and Minnie Tallulah (Grant) Walker. Like many of Walker's fictional characters, she was the daughter of a sharecropper (a farmer who rents his land), and the youngest of eight children. At age eight, Walker was accidentally injured by a BB gun shot to her eye by her brother. Her partial blindness caused her to withdraw from normal childhood activities and begin writing poetry to ease her loneliness. She found that writing demanded peace and quiet, but these were difficult things to come by when ten people lived in four rooms. She spent a great deal of time working outdoors sitting under a tree.

Walker attended segregated (separated by race) schools which would be described as inferior by current standards, yet she recalled that she had terrific teachers who encouraged her to believe the world she was reaching for actually existed. Although Walker grew up in a poor environment, she was supported by her community and by the knowledge that she could choose her own identity. Moreover, Walker insisted that her mother granted her "permission" to be a writer and gave her the social, spiritual, and moral substance for her stories.

Upon graduating from high school, Walker secured a scholarship to attend Spelman College in Atlanta, Georgia, where she got involved in the growing Civil Rights movement, a movement which called for equal rights among all races. In 1963, Walker received another scholarship and transferred

to Sarah Lawrence College in New York, where she completed her studies and graduated in 1965 with a bachelor's degree. While at Sarah Lawrence, she spent her junior year in Africa as an exchange student. After graduation she worked with a voter registration drive in Georgia and the Head Start program (a program to educate poorer children) in Jackson, Mississippi. It was there she met, and in 1967 married, Melvyn Leventhal, a civil rights lawyer. Their marriage produced one child, Rebecca, before ending in divorce in 1976.

Writing and teaching careers begin

In 1968, Walker published her first collection of poetry, *Once*. Walker's teaching and writing careers overlapped during the 1970s. She served as a writer-in-residence and as a teacher in the Black Studies program at Jackson State College in Tennessee (1968–69) and Tougaloo College in Mississippi (1970–71). While teaching she was at work on her first novel, *The Third Life of Grange Copeland* (1970), which was assisted by an award from the National Endowment for the Arts (1969; a government program to provide money to artists). She then moved north and taught at Wellesley College, in Massachusetts, and the University of Massachusetts at Boston (both 1972–73). In 1973 her collection of short stories, *In Love and Trouble: Stories of Black Women*, and a collection of poetry, *Revolutionary Petunias*, appeared. She received a Radcliffe Institute scholarship (1971–73), a Rosenthal Foundation award, and an American Academy and Institute of Arts and Letters award (both in 1974) for *In Love and Trouble*.

In 1976 Walker's second novel, *Meridian*, was published, followed by a Guggen-

heim award (in 1977–1978). In 1979 another collection of poetry, *Goodnight, Willie Lee, I'll See You in the Morning*, was published, followed the next year by another collection of short stories, *You Can't Keep a Good Woman Down* (1980).

Walker's third novel, *The Color Purple* was published in 1982, and this work won both a Pulitzer Prize and the American Book Award the following year. Walker was also a contributor to several periodicals and in 1983 published many of her essays, a collection titled *In Search of Our Mother's Gardens: A Collection of Womanist Prose* (1983). Walker worked on her fourth novel while living in Mendocino County outside San Francisco, California.

Walker's novels

Walker's first novel, *The Third Life of Grange Copeland*, centers on the life of a young African American girl, Ruth Copeland, and her grandfather, Grange. As an old man, Grange learns that he is free to love, but love does not come without painful responsibility. At the climax of the novel, Grange summons his newly found knowledge to rescue his granddaughter, Ruth, from his brutal son, Brownfield. The rescue demands that Grange murder his son in order to stop the cycle of cruelty.

Walker's third and most famous novel, *The Color Purple*, is about Celie, a woman so down and out that she can only tell God her troubles, which she does in the form of letters. Poor, black, female, alone and uneducated, held down by class and gender, Celie learns to lift herself up from sexual exploitation and brutality with the help of the love of another woman, Shug Avery. Against the backdrop of Celie's letters is another story about African customs. This evolves from her



Alice Walker.

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sister Nettie's letters which Celie's husband hid from Celie over the course of twenty years. Here, Walker presented problems of women bound within an African context, encountering many of the same problems that Celie faces. Both Celie and Nettie are restored to one another, and, most important, each is restored to herself.

Walker's writing analyzed

At the time of publication of Walker's first novel (in 1970), she said in a *Library Journal* interview that, for her, "family relationships are sacred." Indeed, much of

Walker's work describes the emotional, spiritual, and physical devastation that occurs when family trust is betrayed. Her focus is on African American women, who live in a larger world and struggle to achieve independent identities beyond male domination. Although her characters are strong, they are, nevertheless, vulnerable. Their strength resides in their acknowledged debt to their mothers, to their sensuality, and to their friendships among women. These strengths are celebrated in Walker's work, along with the problems women encounter in their relationships with men who regard them as less significant than themselves merely because they are women. What comes out of this belief is, of course, violence. Hence Walker's stories focus not so much on the racial violence that occurs among strangers but the violence among friends and family members, a kind of deliberate cruelty, unexpected but always predictable.

Walker began her exploration of the terrors that beset African American women's lives in her first collection of short stories, *In Love and Trouble*. Here she examined the stereotypes about their lives that misshape them and misguide perceptions about them. Her second short story collection, *You Can't Keep a Good Woman Down*, dramatizes the strength of African American women to rebound despite racial, sexual, and economic difficulties.

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MADAME C. J. WALKER

Born: December 23, 1867

Delta, Louisiana

Died: May 25, 1919

New York, New York

African American businesswoman

As a manufacturer of hair care products for African American women, Madame C. J. Walker, born Sarah Breedlove, became one of the first American women millionaires.

Struggling childhood

Madame C. J. Walker, named Sarah Breedlove at birth, was born December 23, 1867, in Delta, Louisiana, to Owen and Minerva Breedlove, both of whom were emancipated (freed) slaves and worked on a cotton plantation. At the age of six Sarah's parents died after the area was struck by yellow fever, a deadly disease oftentimes spread by mosquitoes. The young girl then moved to Vicksburg to live with her sister Louvinia and to work as a housemaid. She worked hard from the time she was very young, was extremely

poor, and had little opportunity to get an education. In order to escape the terrible environment created by Louvinia's husband, Sarah married Moses McWilliams when she was only fourteen years old. At eighteen she gave birth to a daughter she named Lelia. Two years later her husband died.

Sarah then decided to move to St. Louis, Missouri, where she worked as a laundress (a woman who washes people's clothes as a job) and in other domestic positions for eighteen years. She joined St. Paul's African Methodist Episcopal Church and put her daughter through the public schools and Knoxville College. Sarah, who was barely literate (able to read and write), was especially proud of her daughter's educational accomplishments.

Develops hair care products

By the time Sarah was in her late thirties, she was dealing with hair loss because of a combination of stress and damaging hair care products. After experimenting with various methods, she developed a formula of her own that caused her hair to grow again quickly. She often said that after praying about her hair, she was given the formula in a dream. When friends and family members noticed how Sarah's hair grew back, they began to ask her to duplicate her product for them. She began to prepare her formula at home, selling it to friends and family and also selling it door to door.

Sarah began to advertise a growing number of hair care products with the help of her family and her second husband, Charles Joseph Walker, a newspaperman whom she had married in 1906 after she moved to Denver, Colorado. She also adopted her husband's initials and surname as her professional name,



Madame C. J. Walker.

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calling herself Madame C. J. Walker for the rest of her life, even after the marriage ended. Her husband helped her develop mail marketing techniques for her products, usually through the African American-owned newspapers. When their small business was successful, with earnings of about ten dollars a day, Walker thought she should continue to expand, but her husband thought otherwise. Rather than allow her husband's wishes to slow her work, the couple separated.

Business booms

Walker's business continued to expand. She not only marketed her hair care products

but also tutored African American men and women in their use, recruiting a group called “Walker Agents.” Her products were often used with a metal comb that was heated on the stove, then applied to straighten very curly hair. She also began to manufacture a facial skin cream. The hair process was controversial (open to dispute) because many felt that African American women should wear their hair in natural styles rather than attempt to change the texture from curly to straight. In spite of critics, Walker’s hair care methods gained increasing popularity among African American women, who enjoyed products designed especially for them. This resulted in growing profits for Walker’s business and an increasing number of agents who marketed the products for her door to door.

Walker worked closely with her daughter Lelia and opened a school for “hair culturists” in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania,—Lelia College—which operated from 1908 to 1910. In 1910 the Walkers moved to Indianapolis, Indiana, where they established a modern factory to produce their products. They also began to hire African American professionals who could direct various aspects of their operation. Among the workers were tutors who helped Walker get a basic education.

Walker traveled throughout the nation demonstrating her products, recruiting salespersons, and encouraging African American entrepreneurs (business investors). Her rounds included conventions of African American organizations, churches, and civic groups. Not content with her domestic achievements, Walker traveled to the Caribbean and Latin America to promote her business and to recruit individuals to teach her hair care methods. Observers estimated

that Walker’s company had about three thousand agents for whom Walker held annual conventions where they were tutored in product use, hygienic (cleaning) care techniques, and marketing strategies. She also gave cash awards to those who were most successful in promoting sales.

At Lelia’s urging, Walker purchased property in New York City in 1913, with the belief that a base in that city would be important. In 1916 she moved to a luxurious townhouse she had built in Harlem, and a year later to an estate called Villa Lewaro she had constructed at Irvington-on-Hudson, New York.

Charity and legacy

Although Walker and her daughter lived well, they carefully managed each aspect of their business, whose headquarters remained in Indianapolis, and gave to a number of philanthropic (charity) organizations. According to rumor, Walker’s first husband was lynched (killed by a group of people acting outside of the law). Perhaps it was partially for this reason that Walker supported antilynching legislation (laws) and gave generously to the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), eventually willing that organization her estate in Irvington-on-Hudson. The Walkers generously supported religious, educational, charitable, and civil rights organizations.

Walker did not listen to her doctors’ warnings that her fast-paced life was hurting her health. On May 25, 1919, when she was fifty-one years old, she died of hypertension (high blood pressure). Her funeral service was held in Mother Zion African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church in New York City.

Celebrated African American educator Mary McLeod Bethune (1875–1955) delivered the eulogy (a tribute), and Walker was buried at Woodlawn Cemetery in the Bronx. Her daughter, Lelia, took over her role as president of the Madame C. J. Walker Manufacturing Company.

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BARBARA WALTERS

Born: September 25, 1931

Boston, Massachusetts

American newscaster and reporter

Drawing the highest pay in the history of television broadcasting at the time, Barbara Walters became

the first woman coanchor of a network evening newscast. She developed to a high art the interviewing of public figures.

Early life

Barbara Walters was born to Dena (Selett) and Lou Walters on September 25, 1931, in Boston, Massachusetts. Her only brother, Burton, had died of pneumonia before Barbara was born, and her sister, Jacqueline, was born mentally handicapped. Her father operated a number of nightclubs, resulting in Barbara attending schools in Boston, New York City, and Miami Beach, Florida. Because of this lifestyle, Walters grew up a lonely and shy child and was especially close to her only playmate and sister, Jacqueline.

Walters earned a bachelor's degree in English from Sarah Lawrence College in 1954. After working briefly as a secretary she landed a job with the National Broadcasting Company's (NBC) New York affiliate WRCA-TV where she quickly rose to producer and writer. She also held various writing and public relations jobs, including a stint as a women's program producer at WPIX-TV in New York City.

Walters's abilities and experience in research, writing, filming, and editing earned her a job as news and public affairs producer for Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) television. There she wrote materials for noted personalities who appeared on the CBS morning show that competed with NBC's *Today* program. She left CBS because she believed further advancement was unlikely.

Moving in front of the camera

In 1961 Walters was hired by NBC as a writer with an occasional on-the-air feature



Barbara Walters.

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for the *Today* show. Within three years Walters became an on-camera interviewer and persuaded such notables as Mamie Eisenhower (1896–1979), Anwar Sadat (1918–1981), and H. R. Haldeman (1926–1993) to appear with her.

Meanwhile, a number of different “show business” women held the post as the “*Today* girl,” but none had a journalism background. Mainly they engaged in small talk and read commercials. Some at NBC began to think a different kind of woman might help the show. When the spot was unexpectedly opened, Walters was given the “*Today* girl” slot on a trial basis. The public readily

accepted this bright, on-the-air newswoman, who also continued to write and produce much of her own material. A few months later, Hugh Downs (1921–) said Walters was the best thing that had happened to the *Today* show during his time as host. They would later be teamed on ABC’s program *20/20* as competition to CBS’s *Sixty Minutes*.

Today featured stories by Walters that included socially significant topics, and frequently she got on-the-spot experience which gave her reports even more credibility. As her reputation grew, NBC made her a radio commentator on *Emphasis* and *Monitor*. She also participated in such NBC specials as “The Pill” and “The Sexual Revolution” (1967), and in 1969 she covered the ceremony which conferred Prince Charles (1948–) as the Prince of Wales.

Finally in 1974 Walters was named cohost of the *Today* show. By then, her status as a broadcaster had risen to such heights that she had twice been named to *Harper’s Bazaar*’s list of “100 Women of Accomplishment” (1967 and 1971), *Ladies Home Journal*’s “75 Most Important Women” (1970), and *Time*’s “200 Leaders of the Future” (1974). As the most influential woman on television, others soon competed for her talents.

Million-dollar newswoman

In 1976 Walters accepted a million-dollar-a-year contract for five years to move to ABC, where she became television’s first network anchorwoman, the most prestigious job in television journalism. She also anchored and produced four prime-time specials and sometimes hosted or appeared on the network’s other news and documentary programs. Her contract stirred professional criti-

cism and jealousy. It not only doubled her income from NBC and her syndicated show, *Not For Women Only*, but it also made her the highest paid newscaster in history at that time. Walter Cronkite (1916–), John Chancellor, and Harry Reasoner then received about four hundred thousand dollars.

Executives of other networks cried that their established anchors might demand salary increases, questioned what they perceived as a “show biz” tint to the dry task of news reporting, and questioned whether the public would accept a woman news anchor. (ABC’s private polls before they made their record offer indicated only 13 percent preferred a male anchor, and they knew her presence could easily increase advertising revenues far exceeding her salary.)

Despite Walters’s sharp, probing interviewing techniques, she seldom seemed to alienate the person she was interviewing. She revealed some of the secrets of her success in her book *How to Talk With Practically Anybody About Practically Anything* (1970). Others attributed her interviewing success to her amazing ability to ask primarily those questions that the public would want answered.

However, Walters still had her critics. Some interview-subjects said her nervousness distracted them. Others claimed she was so eager that disastrous mistakes occurred, citing the instance when she grabbed another network’s microphone as she dashed to get a unique interview. Washington press corps members charged that she acted more as a “star” than as a reporter on presidential trips. However, her professional admirers outnumbered those who criticized her. Walter Cronkite noted her special interviewing talents. Sally Quinn, former rival on *CBS Morn-*

ing News, commented how “nice” Walters was to her.

Still on top

Walters’s personal life held considerable interest to the public. Her brief marriage to businessman Bob Katz was annulled, or made void; her thirteen-year marriage to Lee Guber, a theatrical producer, ended in divorce. Still they remained friendly, sharing mutual love for their daughter, Jacqueline Dena. In 1985 she married Merv Adelson, who had also previously been wed twice.

Walters has had a reputation for often being the first to interview world leaders. During the 1996 presidential campaign she interviewed the first African American Chair of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, General Colin Powell (1937–), after his retirement from the military. She has also had exclusive interviews with both Christopher Darden and Robert Shapiro of the O. J. Simpson murder trial, noted by the media as one of the most controversial murder trials of the twentieth century. Walters also had exclusive interviews with billionaire David Geffen, then with Christopher Reeve (1952–) following the horseback riding fall that left him paralyzed. In 1999, Walters was the first to be granted a public interview by Monica Lewinsky, the former White House intern whose affair with President Bill Clinton (1946–) led to his impeachment trial by the U.S. House of Representatives.

Walters’s elevation to top-paid broadcaster was credited with raising the status of other women journalists. Her own prowess as a broadcaster exploring socially important issues and as top-notch interviewer were undeniable. In addition, she excelled at bringing to the television public subjects that

ranged from show business personalities to heads of state.

In September 2000, Walter renewed her contract with ABC. The lucrative deal reportedly pays Walters \$12 million per year, making her one of the highest paid news anchors in the world.

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AN WANG

Born: February 7, 1920

Shanghai, China

Died: March 24, 1990

Boston, Massachusetts

Chinese-born American inventor, engineer, and business executive

An Wang made important inventions relating to computer memories and to electronic calculators. He was the founder and longtime executive officer of Wang Laboratories Incorporated, a leading American manufacturer of computers and word processing systems.

Childhood and education

An Wang was born the oldest of five children on February 7, 1920, in Shanghai, China, to Yin Lu and Zen Wan Wang. His father taught him English at home and Wang began his formal schooling at age six when he entered the third grade. In elementary school, Wang began to excel in science and mathematics. He became interested in radio as a high school student, built his own radio, and went on to study communications engineering at Chiao-Tung University in his native city. After graduation he stayed on at the university for another year as a teaching assistant. With the outbreak of World War II (1939-45; a war in which France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, the United States, and other European forces fought against those of Germany, Japan, and Italy), Wang moved to inland China, where he spent the war designing radio receivers and transmitters for the Chinese to use in their fight against Japan.

Wang left China in the spring of 1945, receiving a government stipend (financial support) to continue his education at Harvard University in Cambridge, Massachusetts. He completed his master's degree in communications engineering in one year. After graduation, he worked for an American company for some months and then for a Canadian office of the Chinese government. In 1947, he returned to Harvard University and rapidly completed a doctorate degree in engineering and applied physics. Wang married in 1949, and he and his wife had three children. Six years later Wang became an American citizen.

Invention

In the spring of 1948 Howard Aiken (1900–1973) hired Wang to work at the Harvard Computation Laboratory. This institution had built the ASSC Mark I, one of the world's first digital computers, a few years earlier and was developing more advanced machines under a contract from the U.S. Air Force. Aiken asked Wang to develop a way to store and retrieve data in a computer using magnetic devices. Wang studied the magnetic properties of small doughnut-shaped rings of ferromagnetic material, or materials that can become highly magnetized. Wang soon developed a process where one could read the information stored in a ring by passing a current around it. Researchers at the nearby Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) and elsewhere were interested in the idea of magnetic core storage of information and greatly developed it for use in various computers. Wang published an account of his results in a 1950 article coauthored by W.D. Woo, another Shanghai native who worked at Harvard. He also patented his invention and, despite a long court fight, earned substantial royalties (money earned from sales) from International Business Machines (IBM) and other computer manufacturers who used magnetic core memories. These cores remained a basic part of computers into the 1970s.

Wang was not happy with having others develop and sell his inventions. In 1951 he left the Computation Laboratory and used his life savings to start his own electronics company. He first sold custom-built magnetic shift registers for storing and combining electronic signals. His company also sold machines for magnetic tape control and numerical control. In the mid-1960s Wang



An Wang.

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invented a digital logarithmic converter that made it possible to perform routine arithmetic electronically at high speeds and relatively low cost. Wang desktop calculators were soon available commercially, replacing traditional machines with mechanical parts. Several calculators operated on one processing unit. These early electronic calculators sold for over one thousand dollars per keyboard. They were used in schools, scientific laboratories, and engineering firms. By 1969, Wang Laboratories had begun to produce less expensive calculators for wider business use. However, Wang saw that the introduction of other technology would allow competitors to

sell electronic handheld calculators at a much lower price than the machines his company offered.

Time to change

Confronted with the need to find new products, Wang directed his firm toward the manufacture of word processors and small business computers. The first Wang word processing systems sold in 1976. They were designed for easy access by those unfamiliar with computers, for broad data base management, and for routine business calculations. In addition to such computer networks, the company developed personal computers for office use.

Wang began his business in a room above an electrical fixtures store in Boston, Massachusetts, with himself as the only employee. By the mid-1980s the company had expanded to over fifteen thousand employees working in several buildings in the old manufacturing town of Lowell, Massachusetts, and in factories and offices throughout the world. To acquire money to finance this expansion and to reward competent employees, Wang Laboratories sold stock and piled up a considerable debt. The Wang family retained control of the firm by limiting administrative power to a special class of shareholders. In the early 1980s when company growth slowed while debt remained large, Wang made some effort to reduce his personal control of the business and follow regular corporate management practices.

While remaining a company officer and leading stockholder, Wang gave increased responsibilities to his son Frederick and to other managers. Wang intended to devote

even more time to educational activities. He served as an adviser to several colleges and as a member of the Board of Regents of the University of Massachusetts. Wang also took a particular interest in the Wang Institute of Graduate Studies which he founded in 1979. This school offers advanced degrees in software engineering. Difficult times in the computer industry soon led Wang to turn his concentration from these projects and resume full-time direction of Wang Laboratories.

Later years and slowing business

In the last decades of the twentieth century, Wang's economic structure faltered. In 1982 the organization generated more than a billion dollars a year, and by 1989 sales were \$3 billion a year. But Wang Laboratories fell on hard times as well. In the early 1990s the former minicomputer maker fell into Chapter 11 bankruptcy and Wang died of cancer in March of 1990 at the age of seventy.

On January 30, 1997, the Eastman Kodak Company bought the Wang Software business unit for \$260 million in cash. The deal put Kodak into the document imaging and workflow business and took Wang out of software. Wang also began a relationship with Microsoft, and Michael Brown, chief financial officer for Microsoft, sat on Wang's board of directors. The reorganization enabled the company to prosper once again.

Wang's engineering insight and business success made him a fellow (member) of the Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers and a fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. He received an honorary doctoral degree from the Lowell Technological Institute.

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BOOKER T. WASHINGTON

Born: April 5, 1856

Franklin County, Virginia

Died: November 14, 1915

Tuskegee, Alabama

African American educator, author, and leader

Booker T. Washington, African American educator and leader, founded Tuskegee Institute for black students. His "Atlanta Compromise" speech made him America's major black leader for twenty years.

Born into slavery

Booker Taliaferro (the Washington was added later) was born a slave in Franklin County, Virginia, on April 5, 1856. His mother was the plantation's cook, while his father, a local white man, took no responsibility for him. From a very early age, Washington recalled an intense desire to learn to read and write.

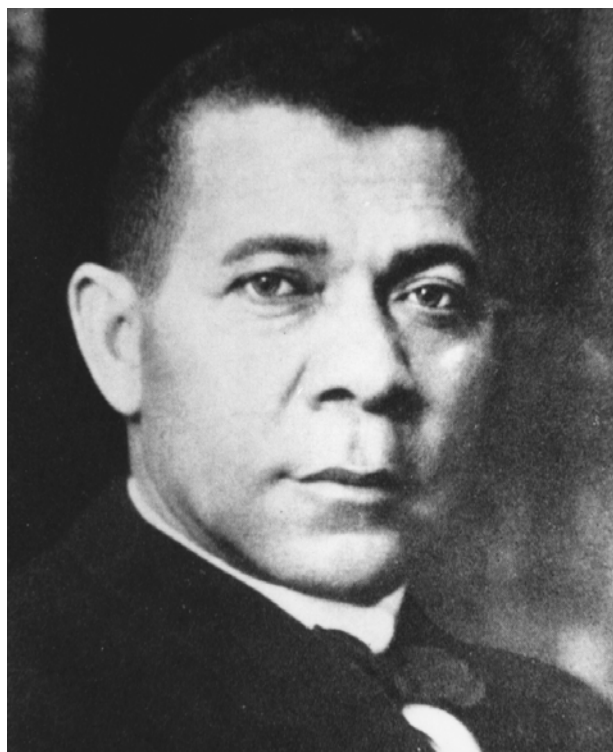
Washington's mother married another slave, who escaped to West Virginia during the Civil War (1861–65; a war in which Northern forces fought against those of the South over, among other things, secession, or the South's desire to leave the Union). She and her three children were liberated (freed) by a Union army in 1865 and, after the war, joined her husband in West Virginia.

Desire to learn

The stepfather put the boys to work in the salt mines in Malden, West Virginia. Booker eagerly asked for education, but his stepfather gave in only when Booker agreed to work in the mines mornings and evenings to make up for earnings lost while in school. He had known only his first name, but when students responded to roll call with two names, Booker desperately added a famous name, becoming Booker Washington. Learning from his mother that he already had a last name, he became Booker T. Washington.

Overhearing talk about an African American college in Hampton, Virginia, Washington longed to attend the school. Meanwhile, as houseboy for the owner of the coal mines and saltworks, he developed sturdy work habits. In 1872 he set out for Hampton Institute. When he ran out of money, he worked at odd jobs. Sleeping under wooden sidewalks, begging rides, and walking, he traveled the remaining eighty miles and, tired and penniless, asked for admission and assistance. After Hampton officials tested him by making him clean a room, he was admitted and given work as a janitor.

Hampton Institute, founded in 1868 by a former Union general, emphasized manual training. The students learned useful trades



*Booker T. Washington.
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and earned their way. Washington studied brickmasonry (laying of bricks) along with other courses. Graduating in 1876, he taught in a school for two years. Studying at Wayland Seminary in Washington, D.C., he became bored with classical education, considering his fellow students to be more interested in making an impression and living off the black masses than in serving mankind. He became convinced that practical, manual training in rural skills and crafts would save his race, not higher learning, which separated the reality of the black man's miserable existence. In 1879 he was invited to teach at

Hampton Institute, particularly to supervise one hundred Native Americans admitted experimentally. He proved a great success in his two years as part of the teaching staff.

Tuskegee Institute

In 1881 citizens in Tuskegee, Alabama, asked Hampton's president to recommend a white man to head their new black college. He suggested Washington instead. The school had an annual legislative appropriation (government money) of two thousand dollars for salaries, but no campus, buildings, students, or staff. Washington had to recruit students and teachers and raise money for land, buildings, and equipment. Hostile rural whites who feared education would ruin black laborers accepted his demonstration that his students' practical training would help improve their usefulness. He and his students built a kiln, an oven used for making bricks, and they erected campus buildings brick by brick.

Under Washington's leadership, Tuskegee Institute became an important force in black education. Tuskegee pioneered in agricultural extension, sending out demonstration wagons that brought better methods to farmers and sharecroppers (farmers who work land owned by another and give a portion of the crop in exchange for the use of the land). Graduates founded numerous "little Tuskegees." African Americans immersed in the poverty of cotton sharecropping improved their farming techniques, income, and living conditions. Washington urged them to become capitalists (business investors), founding the National Negro Business League in 1900. Black agricultural scientist George Washington Carver (c. 1864–1943) worked

at Tuskegee from 1896 to 1943, developing new products from peanuts and sweet potatoes. By 1915 Tuskegee had fifteen hundred students and a larger endowment (designated funds) than any other black institution.

“Atlanta Compromise”

In 1895 Washington gave his famous “Atlanta Compromise” speech. Although he shared the late Frederick Douglass’s (1817–1895) long-range goals of equality (idea that all races are equal) and integration (bringing different races together), Washington criticized disturbing the peace and other protest strategies. He urged black people to drop demands for political and social rights, concentrating instead on improving job skills and usefulness. “The opportunity to earn a dollar in a factory just now is worth infinitely more than the opportunity to spend a dollar in an opera-house,” he said. He appealed to white people to rely on loyal, proven black workers, pointing out that the South would advance to the degree that blacks were allowed to secure education and become productive.

Washington’s position so pleased whites, North and South, that they made him the new black spokesman. He became powerful, having the deciding voice in federal appointments of African Americans and in philanthropic grants (charitable donations) to black institutions. Through subsidies, or secret partnerships, he controlled black newspapers, therefore silencing critics. Impressed by his power and hoping his tactics would work, many black people went along. However, increasingly during his last years, such black intellectuals as W. E. B. Du Bois (1868–1963), John Hope (1868–1936), and William Monroe Trotter (1872–1934) criticized his surren-

der of civil rights (the fight for racial equality) and his stressing of training in crafts, some irrelevant, while forgetting liberal education, which stressed social improvements for black people. Opposition centered in the Niagara Movement, founded in 1905, and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), which succeeded it in 1910.

Although outwardly calm and nonconfrontational, Washington secretly financed and encouraged attempts and lawsuits to block Southern moves to segregate (to separate black and white Americans) black people and stop them from gaining citizenship. He had lost two wives by death and married a third time in 1893. His death on November 14, 1915, cleared the way for black people to return to Douglass’s tactics of protesting for equal political, social, and economic rights. Washington won a Harvard honorary degree in 1891. His birthplace in Franklin County, Virginia, is now a national monument.

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GEORGE WASHINGTON

Born: February 22, 1732

Bridges Creek, Virginia

Died: December 14, 1799

Mount Vernon, Virginia

American president, politician, and military leader

George Washington (1732–1799) was commander in chief of the American and French forces in the American Revolution (1775–83) and became the first president of the United States.

Virginia childhood

George Washington was born at Bridges Creek (later known as Wakefield) in Westmoreland County, Virginia, on February 22, 1732. His father died when he was eleven years old, and the boy spent the next few years living in different households throughout Virginia. He lived with his mother near Fredericksburg, with relatives in Westmoreland, and with his half brother in Mount Vernon.

Not much is known about Washington's childhood. Many American children have heard the story of how the young Washing-

ton took a hatchet and cut down a cherry tree, then admitted his deed because his honest character would not allow him to lie. This tale was probably invented by Mason Locke Weems (1759–1825), author of the biography of Washington that appeared the year after his death. At the age of fourteen Washington had planned to join the British navy but then reluctantly stayed home in obedience to his mother's wishes. By the age of sixteen he had obtained a basic education in mathematics, surveying (the process of measuring and plotting land), reading, and the usual subjects of his time. In 1749 Washington was appointed county surveyor, and his experience on the frontier led to his appointment as a major (a military officer who is above a captain) in the Virginia militia (a small military force that is not part of the regular army) in 1752.

French and Indian War

Washington began to advance in the military ranks during the French and Indian War (1754–63), the American portion of a larger conflict between France and Great Britain over control of overseas territory. In America, this conflict involved a struggle between the two countries over a portion of the Ohio River Valley. Before the war began, Virginia governor Robert Dinwiddie (1693–1770) appointed Washington to warn the French moving into the Ohio Valley against invading English territory. Dinwiddie then made Washington a lieutenant colonel (a military officer who is above a major), with orders to dislodge the French at Pennsylvania's Fort Duquesne, but a strong French force beat the Virginia troops. This conflict triggered the beginning of French and Indian War, and

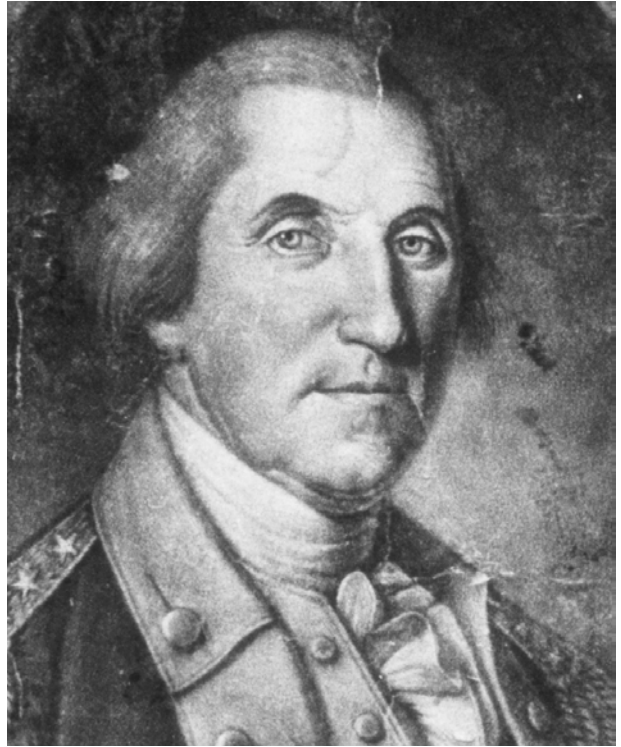
Great Britain dispatched regular troops in 1755 to remove the French by force.

Later in the year, Dinwiddie promoted Washington to colonel (a military officer who is above a lieutenant colonel) and made him commander in chief of all Virginia troops. In 1758 he accompanied British troops on the campaign that forced the French to abandon Ft. Duquesne. With the threat of violence removed, Washington married Martha Custis (1731–1802) and returned to his life at Mount Vernon.

Early political career

Washington had inherited local importance from his family. His grandfather and great-grandfather had been justices of the peace, a powerful county position in eighteenth-century Virginia. His father had served as sheriff, church warden, and justice of the peace. His half-brother Lawrence had been a representative in the Virginia legislature from Fairfax County. George Washington's entry into politics was based on an alliance with the family of Lawrence's father-in-law.

Washington was elected to the Virginia House of Burgesses (an early representative assembly in Virginia) in 1758 as a representative from Frederick County. From 1760 to 1774 he served as a judge of Fairfax County. His experience on the county court and in the colonial legislature molded his views on British taxation of the thirteen American Colonies (which became the first thirteen states of the United States) after 1763. He opposed the Stamp Act (which placed a tax on printed materials) in 1765. In the 1760s he supported the nonimportation of goods (refusal to import goods) as a means of



*George Washington.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.*

reversing British policy. In 1774 he joined the call for a meeting of representatives who would define policies for all thirteen colonies, called the Continental Congress, that would take united colonial action against recent laws directed by the British against Massachusetts.

In July 1774 Washington led the county meeting that was held to adopt the Fairfax Resolves, which he had helped write. These resolves (resolutions) influenced the adoption of the Continental Association, a plan devised by the First Continental Congress (1774) for enforcing nonimportation of British goods. They also proposed the cre-

ation of a militia company in each county that was not under the control of a British-appointed governor. This idea became the basis of the development of the Continental Army, the united military forces of the American colonies fighting the British.

By May 1775 Washington, who headed the Fairfax militia company, had been chosen to command the companies of six other counties. When the Second Continental Congress (1775) met after the battles of Lexington and Concord (the first battles of the Revolution) in Massachusetts, Washington was elected unanimously as commander in chief of all Continental Army forces. From June 15, 1775, until December 23, 1783, he commanded the Continental Army. After the French joined the war on the American side in 1778, it was Washington who headed the combined forces of the United States and France in the War of Independence against Great Britain.

Revolutionary Years

Throughout the Revolutionary years Washington developed military leadership, administrative skills, and political sharpness. From 1775 to 1783 he functioned, in effect, as the chief executive of the United States. His wartime experiences gave him a sense of the importance of a unified position among the former colonies. His writings suggested that he favored a strong central government.

Washington returned to his estates at Mount Vernon at the end of the Revolution. There was little time for relaxation, as he was kept constantly busy with farming, western land interests, and navigation of the Potomac River. Finally, Washington led the proceedings at the Federal Convention in 1787 that

led to ratification, or confirmation, of the new American constitution.

First American president

The position of president of the United States seemed shaped on the generally held belief that Washington would be the first to occupy the office. In a day when executive power was regarded with suspicion, the constitution established an energetic and independent chief executive. Pierce Butler (1744–1822), one of the Founding Fathers, noted that the Federal Convention would not have made the executive powers so great “had not many of the members cast their eyes toward General Washington as President.”

After he was unanimously chosen as president in 1789, Washington helped translate the new Constitution into a workable instrument of government. With his support, the Bill of Rights (a written list of basic rights that are guaranteed to all citizens) was added to the Constitution; an energetic executive branch was established in American government; the departments of state, treasury, and war became official parts of the American president's cabinet; the federal court system was begun; and Congress's power to tax was used to raise money to pay the Revolutionary War debt and to establish American credit at home and abroad.

As chief executive, Washington consulted his cabinet on public policy. He presided over their differences, especially those between Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826) and Alexander Hamilton (1755–1804). Jefferson and Hamilton represented two opposing sides of an extremely important debate during this time about the role of a strong federal government in gov-

erning the former British colonies. Hamilton advocated a strong, centralized federal government, whereas Jefferson, fearing that the executive leader would have too much power, pressed for strong states' rights. Hamilton's position is known as the Federalist position; Jefferson's is known as the anti-Federalist or, later, the Republican position (not to be confused with the present-day Republican political party).

Washington approved the Federalist financial program and later, the Hamiltonian proposals, such as funding of the national debt, assumption of the state debts, the establishment of a Bank of the United States, the creation of a national coinage system, and an internal tax on goods. He also presided over the expansion of the federal union from eleven states (North Carolina and Rhode Island ratified [approved] the Constitution after Washington was sworn in as president) to sixteen (Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee were admitted between 1791 and 1796). Washington's role as presidential leader was of great importance in winning support for the new government's domestic and foreign policies.

Second term

Despite his unanimous election, Washington expected that the measures of his administration would meet opposition—and they did. By the end of his first term the American political party system was developing. When he mentioned the possibility of retirement in 1792, both Hamilton and Jefferson agreed that he was “the only man in the United States who possessed the confidence of the whole” country and urged him to continue with a second term.

Washington's second term was dominated by foreign-policy considerations. Early in 1793 the French Revolution, which had overthrown the French monarchy in 1789, became the central issue in American politics. France had declared war on Great Britain and appointed Edmond Genet (1763–1834) as minister to the United States. Determined to keep America out of the war and free from European influence, Washington issued a neutrality proclamation (a statement that the United States would not take sides or become involved in the conflict), although the word “neutrality” was not used.

Despite the proclamation, Genet supplied French pirates in American ports and organized expeditions against Florida and Louisiana (which were not then part of the United States). For his undiplomatic conduct, the Washington administration requested and obtained his recall to France. In the midst of the Genet affair, Great Britain began a blockade of France and began seizing neutral ships trading with the French West Indies. Besides violating American neutral rights (the territorial rights of a neutral country), the British still held posts in the American Northwest. The Americans claimed that they plotted with the Indians against the United States.

In 1794 Washington sent John Jay (1745–1829) to negotiate a settlement of the differences between the British and the Americans. Although Jay's Treaty was vastly unpopular—the British agreed to leave the Northwest posts but made no concessions on other key issues—Washington finally accepted it. The treaty also paved the way for a new treaty with Spain, which had feared an alliance of American and British interests against Spain in the Western Hemisphere.

Washington's contributions

Nearly all observers agree that Washington's eight years as president demonstrated that executive power was completely consistent with the spirit of republican government. The term "republican" here refers to the principles of a republic, a form of government in which citizens have supreme power through elected representatives and in which there is no monarchy (hereditary king or queen). Washington put his reputation on the line in a new office under a new Constitution. He realized that in a republic the executive leader, like all other elected representatives, would have to measure his public acts against public opinion. As military commander during the Revolution, he had seen the importance of administrative skills as a means of building public support of the army. As president, he used the same skills to win support for the new federal government.

Despite Washington's dislike of fighting among political "sides," his administrations and policies spurred the beginnings of the first political party system. This ultimately identified Washington with the Federalist party, especially after Jefferson's retirement from the cabinet in 1793.

Retirement

Washington's public service did not end with his retirement from the presidency. During the presidency of John Adams (1735–1826), when America seemed on the brink of a war with France, Adams appointed him commander in chief of the American forces. Washington accepted with the understanding that he would not take field command until troops had been recruited and equipped. Since Adams settled the differences with France by diplomatic negotiations, Washing-

ton never assumed actual command. He continued to live at Mount Vernon, where he died on December 14, 1799.

At the time of Washington's death, Congress unanimously adopted a resolution to erect a marble monument in the nation's capital in honor of his great military and political accomplishments. The Washington Monument was completed in 1884.

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**JAMES
WATT**

Born: January 19, 1736
Greenock, Scotland

Died: August 25, 1819

Heathfield, England

Scottish engineer, instrument maker, and inventor

The British instrument maker and engineer James Watt developed an efficient steam engine that was a universal (covering everything) source of power and thereby provided one of the most essential technological parts of the early industrial revolution (a period of rapid economic growth that involved increased reliance on machines and large factories).

Watt's early years

James Watt was born on January 19, 1736, in Greenock, Scotland, the son of a shipwright (a carpenter who builds and fixes ships) and merchant of ships' goods. As a child James suffered from ill health. He attended an elementary school where he learned some geometry as well as Latin and Greek, but he was not well enough to attend regularly. For the most part he was educated by his parents at home. His father taught him writing and arithmetic, and his mother taught him reading.

Of much more interest to James was his father's store, where the boy had his own tools and forge (furnace to shape metals), and where he skillfully made models of the ship's gear that surrounded him. His father taught him how to craft things from wood and metal. He also taught James the skill of instrument making. As a youngster he played with a small carpentry set his father gave him, taking his toys apart, putting them back together, and making new ones.

In 1755 Watt was apprenticed (working for someone to learn a craft) to a London,

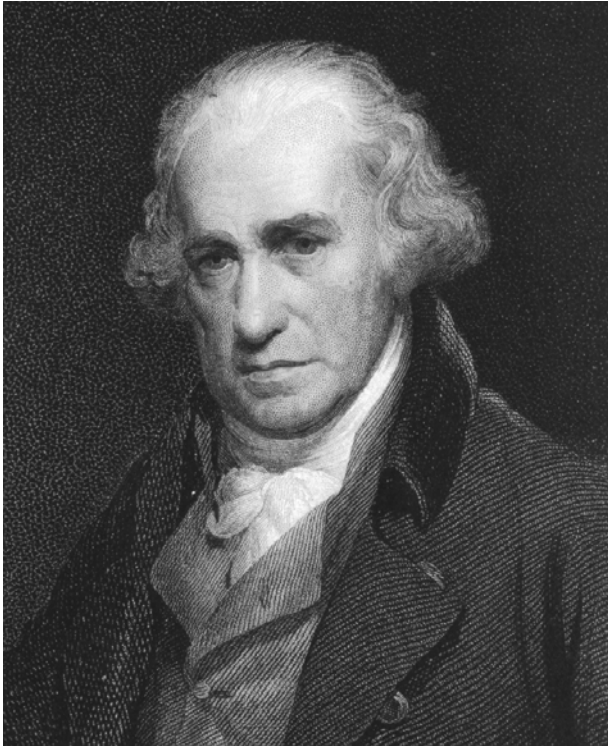
England, mathematical instrument maker. At that time the trade primarily produced navigational (ship steering) and surveying (land measuring) instruments. Watt found London to be unpleasant, however. A year later he returned to Scotland.

Watt wanted to establish himself in Glasgow, Scotland, as an instrument maker. However, restrictions imposed by the tradesmen's guilds (associations of craftsmen) stood in his way. Friends at the University of Glasgow eventually arranged for him to be appointed as "mathematical instrument maker to the university" in late 1757. About this time Watt met Joseph Black, who had already laid the foundation (base) of modern chemistry and of the study of heat. Their friendship was of some importance in the early development of the steam engine.

Invention of the steam engine

At the University of Glasgow, Watt had become engaged in his first studies on the steam engine. During the winter of 1763–64 he was asked to repair the university's model of an earlier model of the steam engine made by Thomas Newcomen around the year 1711. After a few experiments, Watt recognized that the fault with the model rested not so much in the details of its construction as in its design. He found that a volume (amount of space taken up by an object or substance) of steam three or four times the volume of the piston cylinder (chamber with a moving object inside of it) was required to make the piston move to the end of the cylinder.

The solution Watt provided was to keep the piston at the temperature of the steam (by means of a jacket heated by steam) and to condense (make less dense) the steam in a



James Watt.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

separate vessel (chamber) rather than in the piston. Such a separate condenser avoided the large heat losses that resulted from repeatedly heating and cooling the body of the piston, and so engine efficiency was improved.

It took time for Watt to turn a good idea for a commercial invention into reality. A decade passed before Watt solved all the mechanical problems. Black lent him money and introduced him to John Roebuck of the Carron ironworks in Scotland. In 1765 Roebuck and Watt entered into a partnership.

Watt still had to earn his own living but his employment as surveyor of canal construc-

tion left little time for developing his invention. However, Watt did manage to prepare a patent application on his invention, and the patent was granted on January 5, 1769.

By 1773 Roebuck's financial difficulties brought not only Watt's work on the engine to a standstill but also Roebuck's own business. Matthew Boulton, an industrialist (someone who owns and operates a factory) of Birmingham, England, then became Watt's partner. Watt moved to Birmingham. He was now able to work full time on his invention. In 1775 Boulton accepted two orders to build Watt's steam engine. The two engines were set up in 1776 and their success led to many other orders.

Improvements in the steam engine

Between 1781 and 1788 Watt modified and further improved his engine. These changes combined to make as great an advance over his original engine as the latter was over the Newcomen engine. The most important modifications were a more efficient use of the steam, the use of a double-acting piston, the replacement of the flexible chain connection to the beam by the rigid three bar linkage, the provision of another mechanical device to change the reciprocating (back and forth) motion of the beam end to a rotary (circular) motion, and the provision of a device to regulate the speed.

Having devised a new rotary machine, the partners had next to determine the cost of constructing it. These rotary steam engines replaced animal power, and it was only natural that the new engine should be measured in terms of the number of horses it replaced. By using measurements that millwrights (people who build mills), who set up horse gins (ani-

mal-driven wheels), had determined, Watt found the value of one “horse power” to be equal to thirty-three thousand pounds lifted one foot high per minute. This value is still used as the standard for American and English horsepower. The charge of building the new type of steam engine was based upon its horsepower from that time forward.

Other inventions

On Watt's many business trips, there was always a good deal of correspondence (letters) that had to be copied. To avoid this tiresome task, he devised letter-press copying. This works by writing the original document with a special ink. Copies are then made by simply placing another sheet of paper on the freshly written sheet and then pressing the two together.

Watt's interests in applied (practical) chemistry led him to introduce chlorine bleaching into Great Britain and to devise a famous iron cement. In theoretical chemistry, he was one of the first to argue that water was not an element (basic substance of matter made up of only one kind of atom) but a compound (substance made up of two or more elements).

In 1794 Watt and Boulton turned over their flourishing business to their sons. Watt maintained a workshop where he continued his inventing activities until he died on August 25, 1819.

Watt's achievements in perfecting the steam engine have been recognized worldwide. The watt, a unit of electrical power, was named after him.

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JOHN WAYNE

Born: May 26, 1907

Winterset, Iowa

Died: June 11, 1979

Los Angeles, California

American actor

American actor John Wayne played characters that typically showed a heroic American “can-do” spirit in over seventy-five films, mostly Westerns and war movies. He is considered an icon in American film.

“The Duke”

John Wayne was born Marion Mitchell Morrison, of Scotch-Irish descent, to Clyde and Mary Morrison on May 26, 1907, in Winterset, Iowa. He had one brother, Robert Emmet Morrison. He received his nickname “Duke” while still a child, because of his love for a dog of that name. His father was a pharmacist whose business ventures did not succeed. In 1914, when Duke was six, the family moved to California where his father was able to open a drugstore. In 1926 his parents were divorced.



John Wayne.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

From the age of twelve Duke helped his father at his drugstore in his spare time. He also supported himself with a variety of odd jobs, including stints as a delivery boy and as a trucker's helper. At first he aspired to attend the Naval Academy and become a naval officer but things did not work out as planned. Fortunately, he was a star football player on the Glendale High School team, and he was accepted at the University of Southern California on a football scholarship. But an accident soon ended his playing career and scholarship. Without funds to support himself, he left the university in 1927 after two years there.

In college Duke worked at the Fox studio lots in Los Angeles, California, as a laborer, prop boy, and extra. While doing so he met director John Ford (1895–1973), who took an interest in him (and would over the years have a major impact on his career). In 1928, after working at various odd jobs for some months, he was again employed at the Fox studios, mostly as a laborer but also as an extra and bit player. His efforts generally went unbilled, but he did receive his first screen credit as Duke Morrison.

Becoming "John Wayne"

Wayne's first real break came in 1929, when through the intervention of Ford he was cast as the lead in a major Fox production, the Western movie *The Big Trail*. According to some biographers, Fox executives found his name inappropriate and changed it to John Wayne, the last name being taken from the American Revolutionary general "Mad Anthony" Wayne.

The Big Trail was not a success and Fox soon dropped Wayne. During the 1930s he worked at various studios, mostly those on what was known as "Poverty Row." Wayne appeared in over fifty feature films and serials, mostly Westerns. He even appeared in some films as "Singing Sandy." Tall, likeable, able to do his own stunts, it appeared that he was doomed to be a leading player in low-budget films.

However, thanks to Ford, with whom Wayne had remained friends, he was cast as the lead in the director's film *Stagecoach*, a 1939 Western that became a hit and a classic. This film was a turning point in Wayne's career. And although it took time for him to develop the mythic-hero image which pro-

pelled him to the top of the box office chart, he was voted by movie exhibitors as one of the Top Ten box office attractions of the year—a position he maintained for twenty-three of the next twenty-four years.

Superstar

Wayne appeared in over seventy-five films between 1939 and 1976 when *The Shootist*, his last film, a Western, was released. In the vast majority of these films he was a man of action, be it in the American West or in U.S. wars of the twentieth century. As an actor he had a marvelous sense of timing and of his own persona, but comedy was not his specialty. Action was the essence of his films. Indeed, critics have repeatedly emphasized the manner in which he represented a particular kind of “American Spirit.”

As a box-office superstar Wayne had his choice of roles and vehicles, but he chose to remain with the types of films he knew best. As the years passed his only admission to age was from the roles he played. He went from wooing leading ladies, such as Marlene Dietrich (1901–1992) (*Pittsburgh*, 1942), Gail Russell (*Angel and the Badman*, 1947), and Patricia Neal (*Operation Pacific*, 1951) to more mature roles as a rowdy father figure (*McClintock*, 1963), an older brother (*The Sons of Katie Elder*, 1965), and a kind marshal (*Rio Lobo*, 1970).

Wayne's politics were not always right-of-center, but in the latter part of his life he became known for his anticommunism (a political theory where goods and services are owned and distributed by a strong central government) activities. His conservatism began in the mid-1940s. He served as head of the anticommunist Motion Picture Alliance

for the Preservation of American Ideals; supported various conservative Republican politicians, including Barry Goldwater and Richard Nixon (1913–1994); and spoke out forcefully on behalf of various causes such as American participation in the Vietnam War (1955–75; when American forces aided South Vietnam with their struggle against North Vietnam).

Later career

Wayne's politics also influenced his activities as a producer and director. Wayne's production companies made all kinds of films, but among them were *Big Jim McClain* (1951), in which he starred as a process server for the House Un-American Activities Committee fighting communists in Hawaii, and *Blood Alley* (1955), in which he played an American who helps a village to escape from the Communist Chinese mainland to Formosa. The two films that Wayne directed also are representative of his politics: *The Alamo* (1960) is an epic film about a heroic last stand by a group of Texans in their fight for independence against Mexico and included some preaching by the Wayne character about democracy as he saw it; and *The Green Berets* (1968), in which Wayne played a colonel leading troops against the North Vietnamese, which was an outspoken vehicle in support of America's role in the war.

Wayne was married three times. He had four daughters and three sons by two of his wives (Josephine Saenez, 1933–1945, and Pilar Palette Weldy, after 1954). His second wife was Esperanza Diaz Ceballos Morrison (1946–1954). Wayne was the recipient of many awards during his career, including an Oscar for his role as the hard-drinking, one-

eyed, tough law man in *True Grit* (1969) and an Academy Award nomination for his playing of the career marine in *Sands of Iwo Jima* (1949). Plagued by various illnesses during the last few years of his life, he publicly announced his triumph over lung cancer in 1964. But a form of that disease eventually claimed his life on June 11, 1979.

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DANIEL WEBSTER

Born: January 18, 1782

Salisbury, New Hampshire

Died: October 24, 1852

Marshfield, Massachusetts

American orator and lawyer

Daniel Webster, a notable public speaker and leading constitutional lawyer, was a major congressional spokesman for the Northern Whigs during his twenty years in the U.S. Senate.

Childhood

Daniel Webster was born in Salisbury, New Hampshire, on January 18, 1782. His parents were Ebenezer, who worked as a tavern owner and a farmer and was also involved in politics, and his second wife, Abigail. While a child, Daniel earned the nickname "Black Dan" for his dark skin and black hair and eyes. The second youngest of ten children, Daniel developed a passion for reading and learning at a young age. His formal education began in 1796 when he started at Phillips Academy in Exeter. Then when he was fifteen, Daniel went on to Dartmouth College.

After graduating from Dartmouth, Daniel studied law and was admitted to the bar (an organization for lawyers) in 1805. He opened a law office in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in 1807, where his success was immediate. He became a noted spokesman for the Federalists (a leading political party that believed in a strong federal government) through his addresses on patriotic occasions. In 1808 he married Grace Fletcher.

Early years in politics

Elected to the U.S. House of Representatives in 1813, Webster reenergized the Federalist minority with his attacks on the war policy of the Republicans, the opposing political party. Under his leadership the Federalists often successfully obstructed war measures.

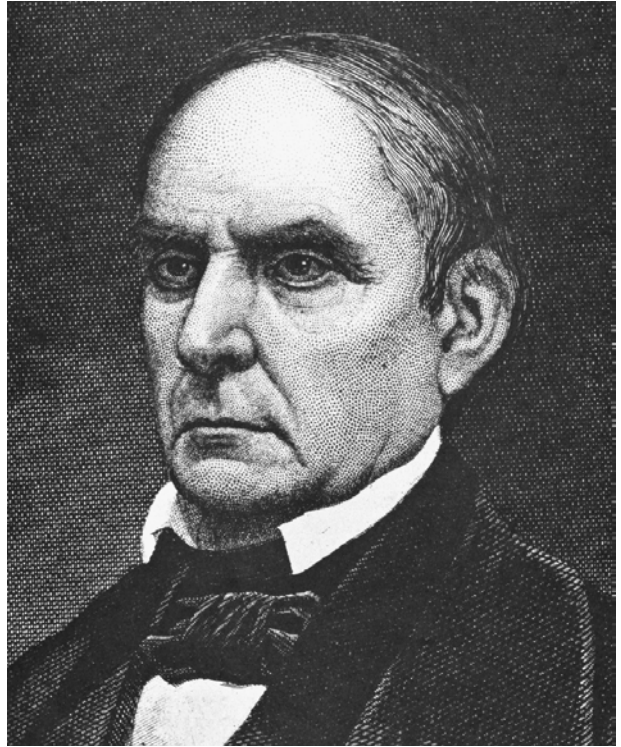
After the War of 1812, when American and British forces clashed over shipping rites, he called for the restructuring of the Bank of the United States, but he voted against the final bill, which he considered defective. As the representative of a region where shipping was basic to the economy, he voted against the protective tariff (tax).

Webster left politics for a while when he moved to Boston, Massachusetts. As a result of his success in pleading before the U.S. Supreme Court, Webster's fame as a lawyer grew, and soon his annual income rose to fifteen thousand dollars a year. In 1819 Webster secured a triumph in defending the Bank of the United States in *McCulloch v. Maryland*. On this occasion Supreme Court Chief Justice John Marshall drew from Webster's brief the belief that the power to tax is the power to destroy. In 1824 Webster was also successful on behalf of his clients in *Gibbons v. Ogden*.

When Webster returned to the U.S. House of Representatives in 1823, his speeches began to attract national attention. From 1825 to 1829 Webster was one of the most faithful backers of President John Quincy Adams (1767–1848), supporting federal internal improvements and supporting Adams in his conflict with Georgia over the removal of the Cherokee Indians.

The Senator

When Webster was elected to the Senate in 1827, he made the first about-face in his career when he became a champion of the protective tariff. This shift reflected the growing importance of manufacturing in Massachusetts and his own close involvement with factory owners both as clients and as friends. It was largely due to his support that the "Tar-



Daniel Webster.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

iff of Abominations" was passed in 1828. His first wife died shortly after he entered the Senate, and in 1829 he married Catherine Le Roy of New York City.

In January 1830 Webster electrified the nation by his speeches in response to the elaborate explanations of the Southern states' rights doctrines (teachings) made by Senator Robert Y. Hayne of South Carolina. In memorable phrases Webster exposed the weaknesses in Hayne's views and argued that the Constitution (the document that states the principles of the American government) and the Union rested upon the people and not upon the states. These speeches, delivered

before crowded Senate galleries, defined the constitutional issues which disturbed the nation for nearly thirty years.

The person

Webster was at the height of his powers in 1830. Regarded by others as one of the greatest orators (public speakers) of the day, he delivered his speeches with tremendous dramatic impact. Yet in spite of his emotional style and the passionate character of his speeches, he rarely sacrificed logic for effect. His striking appearance contributed to the forcefulness of his delivery. Tall, rather thin, and always clad in black, Webster's face was dominated by deep, luminous black eyes under craggy brows and a shock of black hair combed straight back.

In private Webster was more approachable. He was fond of gatherings and was a lively talker, although at times given to silent moods. His taste for luxury often led him to live beyond his means. While his admirers worshiped the "Godlike Daniel," his critics thought his constant need for money deprived him of his independence. During the Panic of 1837, a desperate financial crisis resulting from the expansion into western lands, he was in such desperate circumstances as a result of excessive investments in western lands that only loans from business friends saved him from ruin. Again, in 1844, when it seemed financial pressure might force him to leave the Senate, he permitted his friends to raise a fund to provide him with an income.

Secretary of State

Webster was one of the leaders of the anti-Andrew Jackson (1767–1845) forces

that came together in the Whig party, a political party which opposed Jackson's Democrats. Regardless, Webster did endorse President Jackson's stand during the nullification crisis in 1832, where several states threatened to leave the Union unless granted the right to "nullify," or make void, certain federal laws. In 1836 the Massachusetts Whigs named Webster as their presidential candidate, but in a field against other Whig candidates he polled only the electoral votes of Massachusetts. In recognition of his standing in the party and in gratitude for his support during the campaign, President William Henry Harrison (1773–1841) appointed him secretary of state in 1841. He continued in this post under John Tyler (1790–1862), who succeeded to the presidency when Harrison died a month after he was sworn in as president. Among other accomplishments, Webster sent Caleb Cushing (1800–1879) to the Orient (Far East) to establish commercial relations with China, although he was no longer in office when Cushing concluded the agreement. Late in 1843 Webster, feeling that he no longer enjoyed Tyler's confidence, gave in to Whig pressure and retired from office.

Webster, in spite of his disappointment at not receiving the presidential nomination in 1844, actively campaigned for Henry Clay (1777–1852), his rival within the party. On his return to the Senate in 1844, Webster opposed the annexation (acception into the Union) of Texas and as well as the expansionist policies that peaked in the war with Mexico (1846–48), when American forces clashed with Mexico over western lands. After the war he worked to remove slavery from the newly acquired territories which resulted in the Wilmot Proviso.

Although Northern businessmen agreed, the average citizen was outraged over Webster's speech of March 1850 in defense of the new Fugitive Slave Law, a law that provided for the return of escaped slaves. Webster again became secretary of state in July 1850, in Millard Fillmore's Cabinet. In 1852 he lost his last hope for the presidency when the Whigs passed over him in favor of General Winfield Scott (1786–1866), a former Democrat. Deeply outraged, he refused to support the party candidate. He died just before the election on October 24, 1852.

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NOAH WEBSTER

Born: October 16, 1758

West Hartford, Connecticut

Died: May 23, 1843

New Haven, Connecticut

American lexicographer

Noah Webster, American lexicographer (one who compiles a dictionary), remembered now almost solely as the compiler of a continuously successful dictionary, was for half a century among the more influential and most active literary men in the United States.

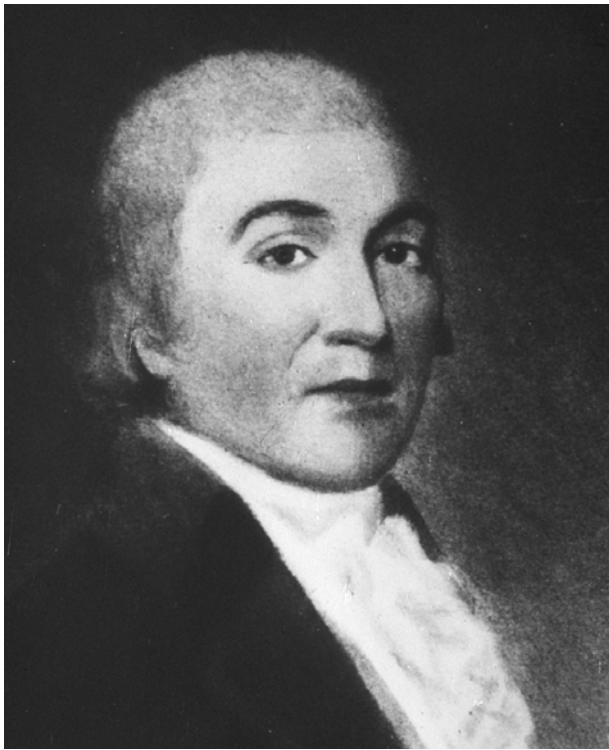
Early life

Noah Webster was born on October 16, 1758, in West Hartford, Connecticut. The fourth son of five children of Noah and Mercy Steele Webster, young Noah showed exceptional scholarly talents as a child, and his father sacrificed much in order that his son would gain the best education available.

In 1774, at age sixteen, Webster entered Yale College, sharing literary ambitions with his classmate Joel Barlow and tutor Timothy Dwight. His college years were interrupted by terms of military service. After his graduation in 1778, Noah began studying law, but because his father could no longer support him, he took a job as a schoolmaster in Hartford, Litchfield, and Sharon, all in Connecticut. Meanwhile, he read widely and studied law. He was admitted to the bar (an association for lawyers) and received his master of arts degree in 1781. Dissatisfied with the British-made textbooks available for teaching, he determined to produce his own. He had, he said, "too much pride to stand indebted to Great Britain for books to learn our children."

Schoolmaster to America

Webster soon developed the first of his long series of American schoolbooks, a speller titled *A Grammatical Institute of the English*



Noah Webster.

Courtesy of the National Archives and
Records Administration.

Language, Part I (1783). Known for generations simply as *The Blue-back Speller*, it was in use for more than a century and sold over seventy million copies. His book's effect on students is said to have been unequaled in the history of American elementary education. Part II of the *Grammatical Institute*, a grammar, reprinted often under various titles, appeared in 1784. Part III, a reader, in the original 1785 edition included sections from yet-unpublished poetry by Dwight and Barlow. Though the reader had a shorter life and more vigorous competition than other parts of the *Institute*, it set a patriotic (having to do with the

love for one's country) and moralistic (having to do with right and wrong) pattern followed by rival books, some of which were thought to attract attention because they were more religiously orientated. Webster stressed what he called the "art of reading" in later volumes, including two secularized (nonreligious) versions of *The New England Primer* (1789, 1801), *The Little Reader's Assistant* (1790), *The Elementary Primer* (1831), and *The Little Franklin* (1836).

Webster toured the United States from Maine to Georgia selling his textbooks, convinced that "America must be as independent in *literature* as she is in *politics*, as famous for *arts* as for *arms*," but that to accomplish this she must protect by copyright (the legal right of artistic work) the literary products of her countrymen. He pleaded so effectively that uniform copyright laws were passed early in most of the states, and it was largely through his continuing effort that Congress in 1831 passed a bill which ensured protection to writers. On his travels he also peddled (sold from door to door) his *Sketches of American Policy* (1785), a vigorous plea on behalf of the Federalists, a then-popular political party that believed in a strong central government. In Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, where he paused briefly to teach school and see new editions of his *Institute* through the press, he published his politically effective *An Examination into the Leading Principles of the Federal Constitution* (1787).

In New York City, Webster established the *American Magazine* (1787–88), which he hoped might become a national periodical (magazine distributed regularly). In it he pled for American intellectual independence, education for women, and the support of Feder-

alist ideas. Though it survived for only twelve monthly issues, it is remembered as one of the most lively, bravely adventuresome of early American periodicals. He continued as a political journalist with such pamphlets as *The Effects of Slavery on Morals and Industry* (1793), *The Revolution in France* (1794), and *The Rights of Neutral Nations* (1802).

Language reform

But Webster's principal interest became language reform, or improvement. As he set forth his ideas in *Dissertations on the English Language* (1789), theatre should be spelled theater; machine, masheen; plough, plow; draught, draft. For a time he put forward claims for such reform in his readers and spellers and in his *Collection of Essays and Fugitiv [sic] Writings* (1790), which encouraged "reezoning," "yung" persons, "reeding," and a "zeel" for "lerning"; but he was too careful a Yankee to allow odd behavior to stand in the way of profit. In *The Prompter* (1790) he quietly lectured his countrymen in corrective essays written plainly, in a simple and to-the-point style.

After Webster married in 1789, he practiced law in Hartford for four years before returning to New York City to edit the city's first daily newspaper, the *American Minerva* (1793–98). Tiring of the controversy (open to dispute) brought on by his forthright expression of Federalist opinion, he retired to New Haven, Connecticut, to write *A Brief History of Epidemic and Pestilential Diseases* (1899) and to put together a volume of *Miscellaneous Papers* (1802).

The dictionaries

From this time on, Webster gave most of his attention to preparing more schoolbooks,

including *A Philosophical and Practical Grammar of the English Language* (1807). But he was primarily concerned with assembling *A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language* (1806); its shorter version, *A Dictionary . . . Compiled for the Use of Common Schools* (1807, revised 1817); and finally, in two volumes, *An American Dictionary of the English Language* (1828). In range this last surpassed (went beyond) any dictionary of its time. A second edition, "corrected and enlarged" (1841), became known popularly as *Webster's Unabridged*. Conservative contemporaries (people of the same time or period), alarmed at its unorthodoxies (untraditional) in spelling, usage, and pronunciation and its proud inclusion of Americanisms, dubbed the work as "Noah's Ark." However, after Webster's death the rights were sold in 1847 to George and Charles Merriam, printers in Worcester, Massachusetts; and the dictionary has become, through many revisions, the foundation and defender of effective American lexicography.

Webster's other late writings included *A History of the United States* (1832), a version of the Bible (1832) cleansed of all words and phrases dangerous to children or "offensive especially to females," and a final *Collection of Papers on Political, Literary and Moral Subjects* (1843). Tall, redheaded, lanky, humorless, he was the butt of many cruel criticisms in his time. Noah Webster died in New Haven on May 23, 1843.

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ORSON WELLES

Born: May 16, 1915

Kenosha, Wisconsin

Died: October 10, 1985

Los Angeles, California

American actor, writer, and director

Orson Welles was a Broadway and Hollywood actor, radio actor, and film director. His earliest film production, *Citizen Kane*, was his most famous, although most of his other productions were notable as well.

Early life and education

Orson Welles was born George Orson Welles in Kenosha, Wisconsin, on May 6, 1915, the second son of Richard Welles, an inventor, and Beatrice Ives, a concert pianist. The name George was soon dropped. The family moved to Chicago, Illinois, when Welles was four, and two years later his parents separated formally. The comfortable family life in which Orson was born gradu-

ally fell apart. Orson lived with his mother for the next few years and was deeply involved with her artistic lifestyle. Upon her death, his father resumed the task of continuing the eight-year-old Orson's education. An important early influence on his life was Maurice Bernstein, an orthopedist who would eventually be his guardian after his father's suicide in 1928. Upon Dr. Bernstein's suggestion, young Orson was enrolled in the progressive Todd School in Woodstock, Illinois. There, Orson was first introduced to theater and learned a great deal about production and direction. His formal education ended with graduation in 1931.

After a short stay in Ireland, where Welles was involved in the theater as an actor, he returned to Chicago where he briefly served as a drama coach at the Todd School and coedited four volumes of plays by William Shakespeare (1564–1616). He made his Broadway debut with Katharine Cornell's company in December 1934. He and John Houseman (1902–1988) joined forces the next year to manage a unit of the Federal Theatre Project, one of the work-relief arts projects established by the New Deal, a major nationwide social program intended to spark economic recovery during the 1930s. Welles's direction was inspired, injecting new life into various classics, including an all-African American *Macbeth*, the French farce (humorous ridicule) *The Italian Straw Hat*, and the morality (having to do with right and wrong) play *Dr. Faustus*.

The Mercury Theatre

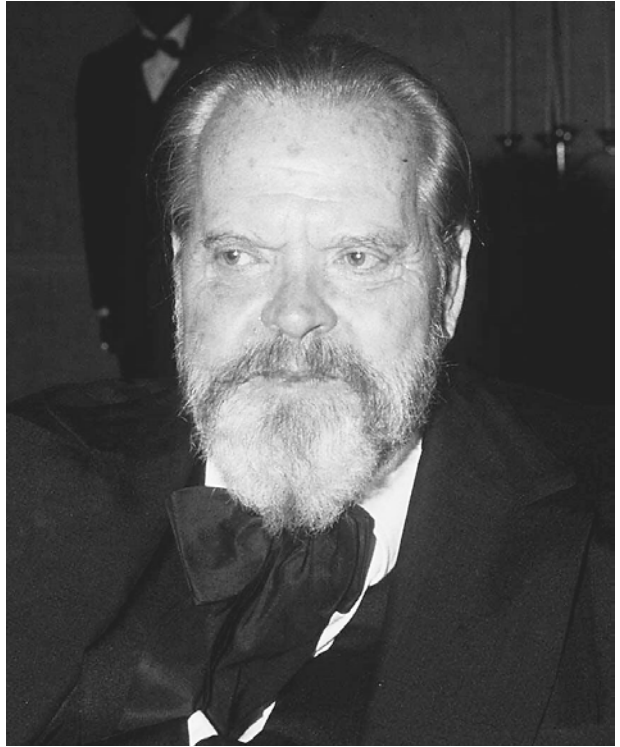
Welles and Houseman broke with the Federal Theatre Project over its attempt to shut down their June 1937 production of

Marc Blitzstein's pro-labor *The Cradle Will Rock*. They organized the Mercury Theatre, which over the next two seasons had a number of extraordinary successes, including a modern dress *Julius Caesar* (with Welles playing Brutus), an Elizabethan working-class comedy *Shoemaker's Holiday* (rewritten by Welles), and George Bernard Shaw's (1856–1950) *Heartbreak House* (with the twenty-four-year-old Welles convincingly playing an elderly man). Welles also found time to play "The Shadow" on radio and to supervise a "Mercury Theatre on the Air," whose most notorious success was an adaptation of H. G. Wells's (1866–1946) *War of the Worlds*, which resulted in panic as many listeners believed that Martians were invading New Jersey.

In 1939 the Mercury Theatre collapsed as a result of economic problems and Welles went to Hollywood, California, to find the cash to resurrect it. Except for a stirring dramatization of Richard Wright's (1908–1960) *Native Son* in 1940, an unhappy attempt to stage Jules Verne's (1828–1905) *Around the World in 80 Days* (music and lyrics by Cole Porter (c.1891–1964) in 1946, and an unsatisfactory *King Lear* in 1956, his Broadway career was over. He did continue theater activity overseas: during the 1950s he successfully staged *Moby Dick* in England, directed Laurence Olivier (1907–1989) in the London production of Eugène Ionesco's *Rhinoceros*, and wrote a script for the Roland Petit ballet.

Citizen Kane and other films

Following an early flirtation with movies and after casting around some months for a subject, Welles filmed *Citizen Kane* in 1939



Orson Welles.

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and 1940. Since its release in 1941 this film has generally been praised as one of the best movies of all time. It is a fascinating study of a newspaper publisher. Controversy surrounds the production of this film, which Welles is credited with producing, directing, and coscripting. He also played the leading role. However one views the making of this film, there is no doubt about his role as its catalyst (a provider of action or quick change).

Years later Welles declared "I began at the top and have been making my way down ever since." All the films he directed are of interest, but none matched his initial achieve-

ment of *Citizen Kane*. Among his other films are *The Magnificent Ambersons* (1942), *The Lady From Shanghai* (1946), *Othello* (1952), *Touch of Evil* (1958), *The Trial* (1962), and *F Is for Fake* (1973). Most of these films have been marked by disputes and Welles often disowned the final version. His critics argue that a self-destructive tendency caused these problems and cite his experiences with the unfinished *It's All True*, which he embarked on in Brazil in 1942 before finishing the final editing of *The Magnificent Ambersons*. But his supporters called it a destroyed masterpiece (in his absence, one hundred thirty-one minutes were edited down to a final release print of eighty-eight minutes).

A somewhat hammy actor with a magnificent voice, Welles appeared in over forty-five films besides his own. In some of these films, such as *The Third Man* (1949) and *Compulsion* (1959), he was superb. But all too many were junk movies such as *Black Magic* (1949) and *The Tartars* (1960). He accepted these so that he might earn the funds necessary to finance films of his own such as *Chimes at Midnight* (released in 1966, a film based on various Shakespeare plays).

Later career

For various reasons Welles left the United States after World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis: Italy, Japan, and Germany—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States), and for three decades lived a kind of uprooted existence abroad, with occasional visits back to America for movie assignments or other work. An intelligent individual with many interests, Welles during World War II had put in a stint as a columnist at the liberal *New*

York Post and later gave some thought to a political career. During the latter part of his life, despite being dogged by ill health, he earned a comfortable living doing television commercials for companies such as Paul Masson wines, putting much of what he earned into the production of various films, including *The Other Side of the Wind* (which dealt with an old filmmaker and which was unfinished at the time of his death as well as being involved in litigation, or legal matters). A superb storyteller, Welles—after moving back to the United States in the mid-1970s—was much in demand as a guest on television talk shows.

Married three times, Welles had children with each wife: Virginia Nicolson (Christopher), Rita Hayworth (Rebecca), and his widow Paola Mori (Beatrice). He had many friends in his lifetime, including Oja Kodar, a Yugoslav artist who was his companion and assistant from the mid-1960s onward. Welles shared an Academy Award for the script of *Citizen Kane* and in 1975 was honored by the American Film Institute with a Life Achievement Award. His other awards include a 1958 Peabody Award for a TV pilot. Welles died of a heart attack on October 10, 1985.

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EUDORA WELTY

Born: April 13, 1909

Jackson, Mississippi

Died: July 22, 2001

Jackson, Mississippi

American writer and editor

Eudora Welty is considered one of the most important authors of the twentieth century. Although the majority of her stories are set in the American South and reflect the region's language and culture, critics agree that Welty's treatment of universal (covering or including all) themes and her wide-ranging artistic influences clearly cross all regional boundaries.

Southern childhood

Eudora Alice Welty, the oldest of her family's three children and the only girl, was born on April 13, 1909, in Jackson, Mississippi. That neither of her parents came from the Deep South may have given her some detachment from her culture and helped her become a careful observer of its manners. Her father, Christian Welty, had been raised on a

farm in Ohio and had become a country school teacher in West Virginia. Marrying a fellow teacher, Chestina Andrews, he moved to Jackson to improve his fortunes by entering business. From bookkeeper in an insurance company, he eventually advanced to president. Welty described hers as a happy childhood in a close-knit, bookish family. One of her earliest memories was the sound of her parents' voices reading favorite books to one another in the evenings.

Welty's education in the Jackson schools was followed by two years at Mississippi State College for Women between 1925 and 1927, and then by two more years at the University of Wisconsin and a bachelor of arts degree in 1929. Her father, who believed that she could never earn a living by writing stories, encouraged her to study advertising at the Columbia University Graduate School of Business in New York City during 1930 and 1931. The years in Wisconsin and New York broadened Welty's horizons, and the time she spent in New York City was especially meaningful for it was during the peak of The Harlem Renaissance, an artistic awakening that produced many African American artists. Welty and her friends went to dances in Harlem clubs and to musical and theatrical performances all over the city.

Welty returned to Jackson in 1931 after her father's death and worked as a part-time journalist, copywriter, and photographer for the Works Progress Administration (WPA), which was aimed at providing jobs for writers. The latter job took her on assignments throughout Mississippi, and she began using these experiences as material for short stories. In June 1936, her story "Death of a Traveling Salesman" was accepted for publication



Eudora Welty.

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in the journal *Manuscript*, and within two years her work had appeared in such respected publications as the *Atlantic* and the *Southern Review*.

Produces fiction

Critical response to Welty's first collection of stories, *A Curtain of Green* (1941), was highly favorable, with many commentators predicting that a first performance so impressive would no doubt lead to even greater achievements. Yet when *The Wide Net, and Other Stories* was published two years later, critics were split as some praised the work and others slammed it.

As Welty continued to develop her vision her fictional techniques gained wider acceptance. Indeed, her most complex and highly symbolic collection of stories, *The Golden Apples*, won critical acclaim, and she received a number of prizes and awards throughout the following decade, including the William Dean Howells Medal of the Academy of Arts and Letters for her novella *The Ponder Heart* (1954).

Occupied primarily with teaching, traveling, and lecturing between 1955 and 1970, Welty produced little fiction. These were years of personal difficulty, as she nursed her mother through a long fatal illness and lost both of her brothers. She was nevertheless at work on long projects, notably *Losing Battles*, which she continued to shape for a decade. Then, in the early 1970s, she published two novels, *Losing Battles* (1970), which received mixed reviews, and the more critically successful *The Optimist's Daughter* (1972), which won a Pulitzer Prize.

Although Welty had published no new volumes of short stories since *The Bride of Innisfallen* in 1955, the release of her *Collected Stories* in 1980 renewed interest in her short fiction and brought all-around praise. In addition, the 1984 publication of Welty's *One Writer's Beginnings*, an autobiographical (having to do with a book written about oneself) work describing her own artistic development, further clarified her work and inspired critics to reinterpret many of her stories. She continued to protect the essential privacy of her daily life, however, by discouraging biographic inquiries, carefully screening interviews, and devoting most of her energies to her work. During the later 1970s this work consisted largely of collecting her nonfiction

writings for publication as *The Eye of the Story* and of assembling her short stories as *The Collected Stories of Eudora Welty*. With these two important collections she rounded out the shape of her life's work in literary commentary and fiction.

Later career

An invitation to give a series of lectures at Harvard in 1983 resulted in the three autobiographical pieces published as *One Writer's Beginnings* the next year. Perhaps because she wished to forestall (keep away) potential biographers or because she came to accept public interest in a writer's early experiences in shaping her vision, Welty provided in *One Writer's Beginnings* a recreation of the world that nourished her own imagination. Characteristically, however, she left out family difficulties and other personal matters, focusing instead on the family love of books and storytelling, the values and examples her parents provided, and the physical sensations of life in Jackson that influenced her literary sensitivities.

Welty's fictional chronicle of Mississippi life adds a major comic vision to American literature, a vision that supports the power of community and family life and at the same time explores the need for peace. In his 1944 essay, Robert Penn Warren (1905–1989) identifies these twin themes in Welty's work as love and separateness. While much of modern American fiction has focused on isolation and the failure of love, Welty's stories show how tolerance and generosity allow people to adapt to each other's weaknesses and to painful change. Welty's fiction particularly celebrates the love of men and women, the fleeting joys of childhood, and

the many dimensions and stages of women's lives.

With the publication of *The Eye of the Story* and *The Collected Stories*, Eudora Welty achieved the recognition she has long deserved as an important American fiction writer. Her position was confirmed in 1984 when her autobiographical *One Writer's Beginnings* made the best-seller lists with sales over one hundred thousand copies. During the early decades of her career, she was respected by fellow writers but often dismissed by critics as an oversensitive "feminine" writer. The late 1970s and 1980s, however, saw a critical reevaluation (the act of examining the same thing over again) of her work.

In August of 2000, *Country Churchyards*, with photographs by Welty, excerpts from her previous writings, and new essays by other writers, was published. Welty was inducted into the National Women's Hall of Fame in Seneca Falls, New York, on October 7, 2000. Welty died at the age of ninety-two on July 22, 2001, in Jackson, Mississippi.

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Edith Wharton.

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EDITH WHARTON

Born: January 24, c. 1861

New York, New York

Died: August 11, 1937

Paris, France

American author

Edith Wharton, American author, chronicled the life of upper-class Americans between the late nineteenth to early twentieth century. She is best known for her novels *The House of Mirth* and *The Age of Innocence*.

Childhood

Edith Wharton was born Edith Newbold Jones in New York City, on January 24, probably in 1861. Like many other biographical facts, she kept her birth year secret. Gossip held that the family's English tutor—not George Frederic Jones—was really Edith's father. The truth may never be known, but Edith evidently believed the story. After the Civil War (1861–65), when Northern forces clashed with those of the South, George Jones took his family to Europe, where they could have a better quality of life. In Europe, young Edith began to develop her love of literature and writing.

Back in New York City, by the age of eighteen Edith had published poems in magazines and in a privately printed volume and had experimented with fiction. However, events put off her writing career. The family's second long European trip ended in her father's death. In New York City again, she evidently fell in love with Walter Berry; yet she became engaged to Edward Wharton, eleven years her senior and a wealthy Bostonian. They were married in 1885.

Time to write

Marriage brought Edith Wharton two things she valued most, travel and leisure for writing. In the early 1890s her stories began appearing in magazines, but her first commercial success was a book written with an architect, *The Decoration of Houses* (1897). She sought help on it from Walter Berry, who remained in some uncertain way part of her life until his death in 1927. Soon after this book, Wharton suffered a nervous breakdown. For therapy her physician suggested she write fiction. In 1899 a collection of sto-

ries, *The Greater Inclination*, appeared—the first of her thirty-two volumes of fiction.

In 1905, after Wharton began her friendship with writer Henry James (1843–1916), her first masterpiece, *The House of Mirth*, laid bare the cruelties of the New York City society. Her range was apparent in *Tales of Men and Ghosts* (1910), a collection of chillers, and in the celebrated novella *Ethan Frome* (1911). In 1910 the Whartons moved to France, where Edward Wharton suffered a nervous breakdown and was placed in a sanatorium, a hospital for the mentally unstable. After their divorce in 1913, Edith Wharton stayed in France, writing lovingly about it in *French Ways and Their Meanings* (1919) and other books.

The Age of Innocence, a splendid novel of New York, won the Pulitzer Prize (1921), and a dramatization of Wharton's novella *The Old Maid* won the Pulitzer Prize for drama (1935). Edith Wharton died of a heart attack on August 11, 1937, and was buried in Versailles, France, next to Walter Berry.

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JAMES WHISTLER

Born: July 10, 1834

Lowell, Massachusetts

Died: July 17, 1903

London, England

American painter and etcher

The American painter, etcher, and lithographer James Whistler created a new set of principles for the fine arts, championed art for art's sake, and introduced a subtle style of painting in which atmosphere and mood were the main focus.

Early life

James Abbott McNeill Whistler was born in Lowell, Massachusetts, on July 10, 1834, the son of Major George Whistler, a railroad engineer, and Anna McNeill. In 1842 Czar Nicholas I (1796–1855) of Russia invited Major Whistler to build a railroad from St. Petersburg to Moscow and offered the princely salary of twelve thousand dollars a year. In St. Petersburg the family lived luxuriously, with several servants, and James and his brother had a governess and a Swedish tutor. Because French was the court language, the boys soon became fluent in it. On one occasion the Whistlers took a trip fifteen miles out of St. Petersburg to Tsarkoe Selo. Here, in the palace built by Catherine the Great (1729–1896), there was a suite of apartments in the Chinese style containing many fine examples of Oriental porcelain. James was fascinated by this collection and later became a collector of blue-and-white porcelain.

Whistler's interest in drawing, which had begun when he was four, greatly increased



James Whistler.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

during the years in Russia, and in 1845 he was enrolled in a drawing course at the Academy of Fine Arts in St. Petersburg. In 1849 Major Whistler died, and Mrs. Whistler returned to the United States with her sons, settling in Pomfret, Connecticut. James decided he wanted to go to the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, which his father had attended, and obtained an appointment in 1851. At West Point he stood first in the drawing course but did poorly in chemistry. Because he constantly broke the rules, he racked up two hundred eighteen demerits (marks for bad conduct) and as a result was dismissed in 1854.

After an unsuccessful apprenticeship (a job acquired to learn a trade) with the Winaas Locomotive Works in Baltimore, Maryland, Whistler obtained a job in Washington, D.C., with the Coast and Geodetic Survey. He was always late, often absent, and was the despair of his employer. However, he had the finest training in etching (the process of producing a design or a picture off a hard surface with the use of chemicals) and learned the basic principles of printmaking.

Departure for Europe

With a three hundred fifty dollar-a-year inheritance from his father, Whistler went abroad to study art. He arrived in Paris, France, in 1855 and at once threw himself into the artistic life of the French students. While copying in the Parisian art museum the Louvre in 1858, Whistler met Henri Fantin-Latour (1836–1904), who in turn introduced him to Alphonse Legros (1837–1911) and other artists, including the great realist painter Gustave Courbet (1819–1877). In 1858 Whistler brought out *Twelve Etchings from Nature*, known as the French Set. The next year his first important painting, *At the Piano*, influenced by Fantin-Latour and Dutch seventeenth-century interiors, was rejected by the Paris Salon (an art gallery), although it was accepted by the Royal Academy in London, England, in 1860.

Whistler's painting *Wapping* (1861) shows the influence of Courbet's realism, an art style that seeks to capture reality. One of the figures in the foreground is the redheaded Irish beauty Joanna Hiffernan, known as Jo, who became both Whistler's model and mistress. He painted her as *The White Girl* (1862), standing in a white dress, against a

white background, with her red hair over her shoulder. The figure is medieval (having to do with the Middle Ages) in feeling with a remoteness and deep-thinking gaze that place it close to the Pre-Raphaelite painters, a band of painters that reacted against the unimaginative and traditional historical paintings of their time. Whistler knew their work; he had met Dante Gabriel Rossetti (1828–1882) in 1862 and was decidedly influenced by the Pre-Raphaelites at this time. Although *The White Girl* was rejected by the Royal Academy in 1862 and the Paris Salon of 1863, it was a sensation at the Salon des Refusés, admired by artists though laughed at by the public.

In 1863 Whistler leased a house in the Chelsea section of London, where he set up housekeeping with Jo. His mother arrived late that year and spent the rest of her life in England. Whistler became a collector of blue-and-white porcelain as well as Oriental costumes, in which he posed his models for such pictures as *La Princess du pays de la porcelaine* (1864).

The nocturnes

In 1871 Whistler published the sixteen etchings, *Views of the Thames*, known as the Thames Set. He also did a series of atmospheric paintings which he called nocturnes. He liked to go out on the river at twilight and was fascinated by the foggy or misty effects in the fading light. In putting these impressions on canvas from memory, he made use of the Japanese concept of space as a well-balanced design in which perspective plays no part. In the famous *Arrangement in Grey and Black, the Artist's Mother* (1872) he composed the picture with disarming simplicity, keeping the Japanese concept of space in mind.

During 1877 Whistler exhibited several paintings, including *Falling Rocket*, a nocturne showing the mysterious and elusive (hard to grasp) effects of fireworks at night at Cremorne Gardens. It outraged John Ruskin (1819–1900), considered the country's finest judge of good taste in England, and he wrote an insulting review of the exhibition. Whistler sued him for libel (a written statement that hurts someone's public image) in what was the most sensational art trial of the century and was awarded very little money. The trial ruined Whistler financially, and he had to sell his new house and sell off his porcelain collection.

Fortunately, the Fine Arts Society commissioned Whistler to do twelve etchings of Venice, Italy. He spent fourteen months in Venice doing many etchings as well as small oils, watercolors, and pastels. His etching style was now completely changed. He treated his themes with the utmost delicacy, using a spidery line and lively curves, and he often wiped the plates to give tone. His Venetian work sold well and he was financially reestablished. He took a house in London with Maud Franklin, who had replaced Jo as model and mistress.

On the evening of January 31, 1885, Whistler delivered at Prince's Hall the "Ten O'Clock," his famous lecture summing up his theories on the nature of beauty in polished prose. He mentioned the poetry that evening mists produce when "the tall chimneys become campanili and the warehouses are palaces at night."

Master lithographer

One of Whistler's finest achievements was in the field of lithography (the process of printing on metal), which he concentrated on for a ten-year period beginning in 1887.

Drawing in the most spirited way, he used a stump as well as a pencil and obtained effects never achieved by a lithographer before him. He had great ability with watercolors and small oils which sometimes depicted the sea-side or shop fronts in Chelsea. In portraiture he favored full-length standing poses, influenced by Diego Velázquez (1465–1524), and was more concerned with subtle tones and atmosphere than he was with exact likenesses.

In 1888 Whistler married E. W. Godwin's widow, Beatrix. The Whistlers moved to Paris in 1893 but two years later were back in England. Trixie, as his wife was called, died of cancer in 1896. After her death, Whistler maintained studios in both Paris and London. He died in London on July 17, 1903.

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E. B. WHITE

Born: July 11, 1899

Mount Vernon, New York

Died: October 1, 1985

North Brooklyn, Maine

American essayist and author

E. B. White was one of the most influential modern American essayists, largely through his work for the *New Yorker* magazine. He also wrote two children's classics and revised William S. Strunk's *The Elements of Style*, widely used in college English courses.

Becoming a writer

Elwyn Brooks White was born on July 11, 1899, in Mount Vernon, New York, the son of a piano manufacturer, Samuel Tilly White, and Jessie Hart. The family was comfortably well off, but not wealthy. Raised with two brothers and three sisters, White attended local public schools in Mount Vernon. He went on to attend Cornell University, graduating in 1921.

White was offered a teaching position at the University of Minnesota, but turned it down because his goal was to become a writer. He worked for the United Press International and the American Legion News Service in 1921 and 1922 and then became a reporter for the *Seattle Times* in 1922 and 1923. White then worked for two years with the Frank Seaman advertising agency as a production assistant and copywriter. During this time he had poems published in "The Conning Tower" of Franklin P. Adams, the newspaper columnist who helped several talented young people achieve success during the 1920s and 1930s.

New Yorker

In 1925 White published the article "Defense of the Bronx River" in the *New Yorker* magazine, his first piece in this publi-

cation. It led to his being named a contributing editor in 1927, an association which continued until his death in 1985.

From the time of its origin, *The New Yorker* was one of the most well-received periodicals in the nation. It featured such celebrities as Alexander Woolcott, Dorothy Parker (1893–1967), Robert Benchley (1889–1945), and George S. Kaufman (1889–1961) as contributors, so White was in the company of the best when he was added to the staff.

At some time White became the principal contributor to the magazine's column "Notes and Comment" and set the tone of informed, intelligent, tolerant, faintly amused city life in observations on the passing scene, a feature that continued after his death.

A name for himself

In 1929 White published a poetry collection, *The Lady Is Cold*, and then joined fellow *New Yorker* writer James Thurber (1894–1961) in *Is Sex Necessary?* Freudian psychology, or the study of the subconscious, had been enormously influential in America in the 1920s, giving rise to many volumes analyzing or presenting advice on the subject. The time was ripe for a parody (a literary or artistic work that copies the style of an existing subject in order to make fun of it) of such books, and these two came up with a witty, low key work featuring passages like this: "The sexual revolution began with Man's discovery that he was not attractive to Woman, as such. . . . His masculine appearance not only failed to excite Woman, but in many cases it only served to bore her. The result was that Man found it necessary to develop attractive personal traits to offset his



E. B. White.

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dull appearance. He learned to say funny things. He learned to smoke, and blow smoke rings. He learned to earn money. This would have been a solution to his difficulty, but in the course of making himself attractive to Woman by developing himself mentally, he had inadvertently [unintentionally] become so intelligent an animal that he saw how comical the whole situation was."

Also in 1929, White married *New Yorker* editor Katharine Sergeant Angell; the marriage produced one son. He published *Ho Hum* in 1931, *Another Ho Hum* in 1932, *Every Day Is Saturday* in 1934, and in 1936, in the *New Yorker*, under the pseudonym (pen

name) Lee Strout White, the essay "Farewell My Lovely!" One of his best-known pieces, it was suggested to him by a manuscript submitted by Richard L. Strout of the *Christian Science Monitor*. It served as the basis for the book *Farewell to the Model T*, published later that same year.

White's next work was a poetry collection, *The Fox of Peapack* (1938), the same year that he began the monthly column "One Man's Meat" for *Harper's* magazine, a column which lasted five years. There followed the essay collection *Quo Vadimus?* in 1939; an editing job with his wife, *The Subtreasury of American Humor*, in 1941; and *One Man's Meat*, a collection of his *Harper's* columns, in 1942.

Children's books

In 1945 White entered a new field with great success, writing *Stuart Little* for children. The story of a mouse born to normal human parents was clearly intended to console young people who thought themselves different or odd, and it carried the message that Stuart's parents never batted an eye when their son turned out to be a mouse and that the hero could build himself a good life.

After *The Wild Flag* in 1946 and *Here Is New York* in 1949, White returned to children's literature with his most popular book in the genre (category), *Charlotte's Web*, in 1952. The story of the bond between the young pig Wilbur and the clever spider who saves his life is a look at the power of friendship and a reminder to young readers that death is a part of life. *The Second Tree from the Corner* came in 1954. Three years later White and his wife gave up their New York City apartment and moved permanently to North Brooklin, Maine.

Elements of Style

While an undergraduate at Cornell, White had taken a course with Professor William S. Strunk Jr. Strunk used a text he had written and published at his own expense, a thin volume titled *The Elements of Style*. White edited it, revised it, and added the chapter "An Approach to Style," offering such advice as "Place yourself in the background; do not explain too much; prefer the standard to the offbeat." The book sold widely and became a college campus fixture for the next twenty years in several editions.

Honors began to pour in for White. He won the Gold Medal for Essays and Criticism from the National Institute of Arts and Letters in 1960, the Presidential Medal of Freedom in 1963, the Laura Ingalls Wilder Medal for his children's books in 1970, and the National Medal for Literature in 1971. In 1973 he was elected to the American Academy of Arts and Letters.

E. B. White's influence was great, particularly in his popular essays, which served as models for two generations of readers. In the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s, the *New Yorker* was judged by critics to be a model of elegant yet simple style in nonfiction, and White was in no small measure responsible for this reputation. He died on October 1, 1985, in North Brooklin, Maine.

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WALT WHITMAN

Born: May 31, 1819

West Hills, New York

Died: March 26, 1892

Camden, New Jersey

American poet

Walt Whitman is generally considered to be the most important American poet of the nineteenth century. He wrote in free verse (not in traditional poetic form), relying heavily on the rhythms of common American speech.

Childhood and early career

Walt Whitman was born on May 31, 1819, in West Hills, Long Island, the second of nine children. His family soon moved to Brooklyn, where he attended school for a few years. Young Whitman took to reading at an early age. By 1830 his formal education was over, and for the next five years he learned the printing trade. For about five years, beginning in 1836, he taught school on Long Island; during this time he also founded the weekly newspaper *Long-Islander*.

By 1841 Whitman was in New York City, where his interests turned to journalism. His short stories and poetry of this period were

indistinguishable from the popular work of the day, as was his first novel, *Franklin Evans, or the Inebriate* (1842). For the next few years Whitman edited several newspapers and contributed to others. He was dismissed from the *Brooklyn Eagle* because of political differences with the owner. In 1848 he traveled south and for three months worked for the *New Orleans Crescent*. The sheer physical beauty of the new nation made a vivid impression on him, and he was to draw on this experience in his later poetry.

First edition of Leaves of Grass

Not much is known of Whitman's literary activities that can account for his sudden transformation (change) from journalist and hack writer into revolutionary poet. The first edition of *Leaves of Grass* (1855) opened with a rather casual portrait of Whitman, the self-professed "poet of the people," dressed in workman's clothes. In a lengthy preface Whitman announced that his poetry would celebrate the greatness of the new nation—"The Americans of all nations at any time upon the earth have probably the fullest poetical nature. The United States themselves are essentially the greatest poem"—and of its peoples—"The largeness of nature or the nation were monstrous without a corresponding largeness and generosity of the spirit of the citizen." Of the twelve poems (the titles were added later), "Song of Myself," "The Sleepers," "There Was a Child Went Forth," and "I Sing the Body Electric" are the best known today. In these Whitman turned his back on the literary models of the past. He stressed the rhythms of common American speech, delighting in informal and slang expressions.



Walt Whitman.

Courtesy of the National Archives and
Records Administration.

The first edition of *Leaves* sold poorly. Fortunately, Whitman had sent Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1892) a free copy, and in his now famous reply, Emerson wrote: “I find it the most extraordinary piece of wit and wisdom that America has yet contributed. . . . I greet you at the beginning of a great career.” Emerson’s enthusiasm for *Leaves of Grass* was understandable, for he had strongly influenced the younger poet. Whitman echoed much of Emerson’s philosophy in his preface and poems. Emerson’s letter had a profound impact on Whitman, completely overshadowing the otherwise poor reception the volume received.

Second edition of Leaves of Grass

For the second edition of *Leaves of Grass* (1856), Whitman added twenty new poems to his original twelve. With this edition, he began his lifelong practice of adding new poems to *Leaves of Grass* and revising those previously published in order to bring them into line with his present moods and feelings. Also, over the years he was to drop a number of poems from *Leaves*.

Among the new poems in the 1856 edition were “Crossing Brooklyn Ferry” (one of Whitman’s masterpieces), “Salut au Monde!,” “A Woman Waits for Me,” and “Spontaneous Me.” Most of the 1855 preface he reworked to form the nationalistic poem “By Blue Ontario’s Shore.” Like the first edition, the second sold poorly.

The third edition of *Leaves* (1860) was brought out by a Boston publisher, one of the few times in his career that Whitman did not have to publish *Leaves of Grass* at his own expense. This edition, referred to by Whitman as his “new Bible,” contained the earlier poems plus one hundred forty-six new ones. For the first time Whitman arranged many of the poems in special groupings, a practice he continued in all later editions. The most notable of these “groups” were “Children of Adam,” a gathering of love poems, and “Calamus,” a group of poems celebrating the brotherhood and comradeship of men, or, in Whitman’s phrase, “manly love.”

Whitman and the Civil War

Soon after the outbreak of the Civil War (1861–65; a war between regions of the United States in which Northern forces clashed with those of the South), Whitman

went to Virginia to search for his brother George, reported wounded in action. Here Whitman experienced the war firsthand. He remained in Washington, D.C., working part-time in the Paymaster's Office. He devoted many long hours serving as a volunteer aide in the hospitals in Washington, ministering to the needs of the sick and wounded soldiers. His daily contact with sickness and death took its toll. Whitman himself became ill with "hospital malaria." Within a few months he recovered. In January 1865 he took a clerk's position in the Indian Bureau of the Department of the Interior.

The impact of the war on Whitman was reflected in his separately published *Drum-Taps* (1865). In such poems as "Cavalry Crossing a Ford," "The Wound-Dresser," "Come Up from the Fields Father," "Vigil Strange I Kept on the Field One Night," "Sight in Camp in the Daybreak Gray and Dim," and "Year That Trembled and Reel'd Beneath Me," Whitman caught with beautiful simplicity of statement the horror, loneliness, and anguish caused by the war.

Later career

Following the Civil War and the publication of the fourth edition, Whitman's poetry became increasingly preoccupied with themes relating to the soul, death, and immortality (living forever). He was entering the final phase of his career. Within the span of some dozen years, the poet of the body had given way to the poet of internationalism (not concentrating on a single country) and the cosmic (relating to the universe). Such poems as "Whispers of Heavenly Death,"

"Darest Thou Now O Soul," "The Last Invocation," and "A Noiseless Patient Spider," with their emphasis on the spiritual, paved the way for "Passage to India" (1871), Whitman's most important (and ambitious) poem of the post-Civil War period.

In 1881 Whitman settled on the final arrangement of the poems in *Leaves of Grass*, and thereafter no revisions were made. (All new poems written after 1881 were added as annexes [additions] to *Leaves*.) The seventh edition was published by James Osgood. The Boston district attorney threatened prosecution against Osgood unless certain poems were removed. When Whitman refused, Osgood dropped publication of the book. However, a Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, publisher reissued the book in 1882.

In his last years Whitman received the respect due a great literary figure and personality. He died on March 26, 1892, in Camden, New Jersey. *Leaves of Grass* has been widely translated, and Whitman's reputation is now worldwide.

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ELIE
WIESEL

Born: September 30, 1928

Sighet, Romania

Romanian-born American writer and teacher

Romanian-born American writer, speaker, and teacher Elie Wiesel is a survivor of the Holocaust, the massive killing of Jews by the Nazis, Germany's radical army during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Italy, Germany, and Japan—and the Allies: England, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States). Wiesel is currently the chairman of the United States Holocaust Memorial Council.

Childhood

Elie Wiesel was born in Sighet, Romania, on September 30, 1928. He was the third of four children and the only son of Shlomo and Sarah Wiesel. Wiesel was encouraged by his father to learn modern Hebrew literature, and his mother encouraged him to study the sacred Jewish texts. His father instilled in him the ability to reason and from his mother, he learned faith. When he was fifteen, Wiesel and his family were taken to the concentration camps (harsh political prisons) at Birkenau and Auschwitz, Poland, where he remained until January 1945 when, along with thousands of other Jewish prisoners, he was moved to Buchenwald in a forced death march. Buchenwald was freed on April 11, 1945, by the U.S. Army, but neither Wiesel's parents nor his younger sister survived. His two remaining sisters survived, and they were reunited after the war ended in 1945.

After the war Wiesel went to France where he completed secondary school, studied at the Sorbonne in Paris, France, and began working as a journalist for an Israeli newspaper. In 1956 he moved to New York City to cover the United Nations (UN; a multinational organization aimed at world peace) and became a U.S. citizen in 1963. He was the Andrew Mellon Professor of Humanities at Boston (Massachusetts) University in the mid-1980s.

His writings

Wiesel's writings bear witness to his year-long ordeal and to the Jewish tragedy. In 1956 Wiesel's first book, a Yiddish memoir entitled *And the World Was Silent*, was published in Argentina. Two years later a much smaller version of the work was published in France as *La Nuit*. After the 1960 English language publication of *Night*, Wiesel wrote more than thirty-five books: novels, collections of short stories and essays, and plays. His works established him as the most widely known and admired Holocaust writer.

Only in *Night* does Wiesel speak about the Holocaust directly. Throughout his other works, the Holocaust looms as the shadow, the central but unspoken mystery in the life of his protagonists, or main characters. Even pre-Holocaust events are seen as warnings of impending doom. In *Night* he narrates his own experience as a young boy transported to Auschwitz where suffering and death shattered his faith in both God and humanity. *Night* is widely considered a classic of Holocaust literature.

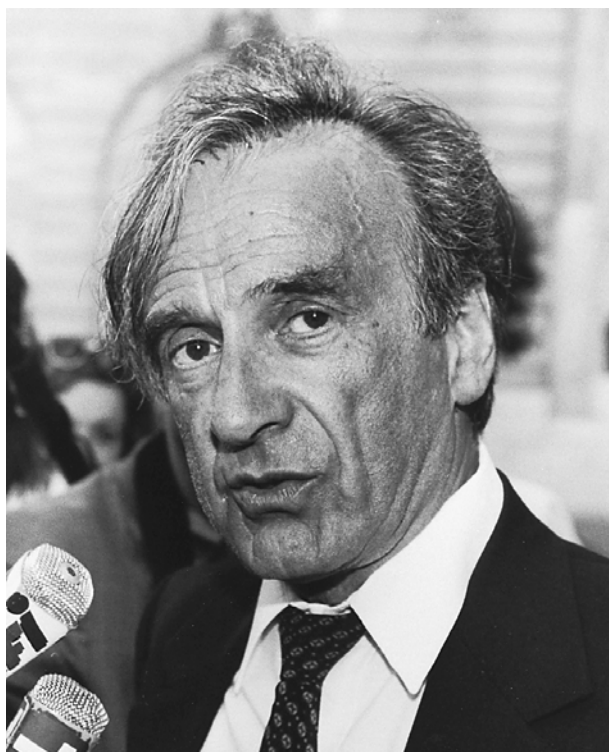
Night was followed in 1961 by *Dawn*, the story of a young Holocaust survivor brought to work for the underground in preindependen-

dence Israel. Young Elisha is ordered to execute a British army officer in retaliation for the hanging of a young Jewish fighter. Through Elisha's ordeal, Wiesel describes the transformation of the Jewish people from defenseless victims into potential victimizers. The execution occurs at dawn, but the killing is an act of self-destruction with Elisha its ultimate victim.

The struggle between life and death continues to dominate Wiesel's third work of the trilogy (a set of three), but in *The Accident* (*Le Jour* in French), published in 1962, God is not involved in either life or death. The battle is waged within the protagonist, now a newspaper correspondent covering the United Nations, who is fighting for life after an accident. In these three early works Wiesel moved from a universe greatly influenced by God to a godless one. The titles of his books grow brighter as the presence of God becomes dimmer, yet the transition is never easy.

Other roles

Wiesel, in addition to his literary activities, played an important role as a public orator, or speaker. Each year he gave a series of lectures on Jewish tradition at New York City's 92nd Street Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA). These lectures formed the basis for his retelling of Jewish tales: stories of Hasidism (eighteenth- and nineteenth-century Jewish pietists [people who stress extreme religious studies and practices]) which Wiesel published in *Souls on Fire* (1972), *Somewhere a Master* (1982), and *Four Hasidic Masters* (1978). Biblical legends are covered in *Messengers of God* (1975), *Images from the Bible* (1980), and *Five Biblical Portraits* (1981). Wiesel spun his own tales in



Elie Wiesel.

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such works as *Legends of Our Time* (1968), *One Generation After* (1970), and *A Jew Today* (1978). The themes of these stories remained tragedy and joy, madness and hope, the fragility of meaning, and the quest for faith.

As a social activist, Wiesel used his writing to plead for Jews in danger and on behalf of all humanity. From his trips to Russia in 1965 and 1966, he produced *The Jews of Silence* (1966) which describes Wiesel's visits with Soviet Jews, or Jewish people living in the Soviet Union (the former country made up of Russia and several smaller states and run by communism, a political system where goods and services are owned and distributed

by a strong central government). Wiesel captured the spiritual reawakening that was to mark the struggle of Soviet Jewry during the 1970s and 1980s. Soviet Jews were not Wiesel's Jews of silence. Western Jews, who dared not speak out on their brothers' behalf, were the silent ones.

Honored

Wiesel was the recipient of numerous awards throughout his career, including the Nobel Peace Prize in 1986. His humanitarian activities were also rewarded with many honors, such as Eleanor Roosevelt Memorial Award (1972) and the International League for Human Rights humanitarian award (1985). Numerous honors have been established in his name, including the Elie Wiesel Chair in Holocaust Studies at Bar-Ilan University and the Elie Wiesel Chair in Judaic Studies at Connecticut College.

Later work

In 1979 President Jimmy Carter (1924–) named Wiesel chair of the President's Commission on the Holocaust, which recommended creation of a memorial museum and educational center in Washington, D.C. In 1980 Wiesel was appointed chairman to the U.S. Holocaust Memorial Council. In 1985 Wiesel led the opposition to President Ronald Reagan's (1911–) trip to a German military cemetery which contained the graves of Adolf Hitler's (1889–1945) elite S.S. Waffen soldiers.

Speaking in 1984 at the White House, where President Reagan presented him with the Congressional Gold Medal, Wiesel summarized his career, "I have learned that suffering confers no privileges: it depends on what one

does with it. This is why survivors have tried to teach their contemporaries how to build on ruins; how to invent hope in a world that offers none; how to proclaim faith to a generation that has seen it shamed and mutilated."

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OSCAR WILDE

Born: October 16, 1854

Dublin, Ireland

Died: November 30, 1900

Paris, France

Irish-born English author, dramatist, and poet

The English author Oscar Wilde was part of the "art for art's sake" movement in English literature at the end of the nineteenth century. He is best known for his brilliant, witty comedies including the play *The Importance of Being Earnest* and his classic novel *The Picture of Dorian Gray*.

Outstanding childhood

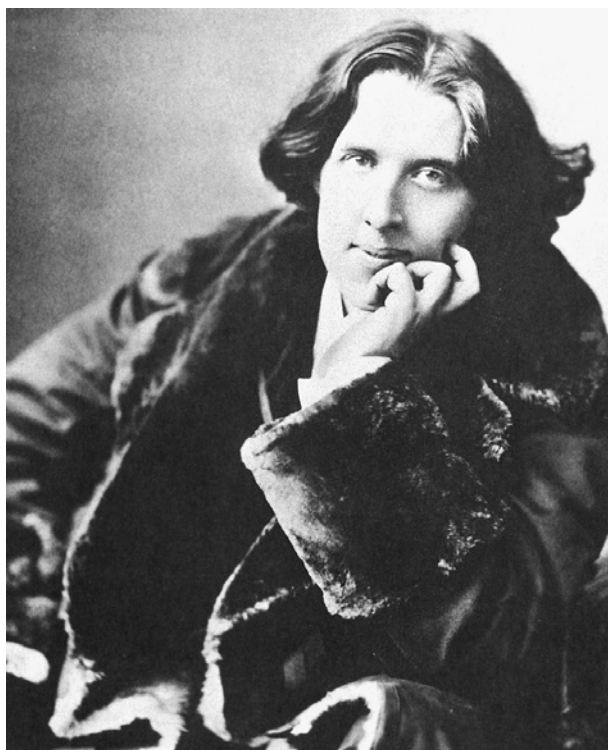
Oscar Fingall O'Flahertie Wills Wilde was born in Dublin, Ireland, on October 16, 1854. His father, Sir William Wilde, was a well-known surgeon; his mother, Jane Francisca Elgee Wilde, wrote popular poetry and other work under the pseudonym (pen name) Speranza. Because of his mother's literary successes, young Oscar enjoyed a cultured and privileged childhood.

After attending Portora Royal School in Enniskillen, Ireland, Wilde moved on to study the classics at Trinity College, Dublin, from 1871 to 1874. There, he began attracting public attention through the uniqueness of his writing and his lifestyle. Before leaving Trinity College, Wilde was awarded many honors, including the Berkely Gold Medal for Greek.

Begins writing career

At the age of twenty-three Wilde entered Magdalen College, Oxford, England. In 1878 he was awarded the Newdigate Prize for his poem "Ravenna." He attracted a group of followers whose members were purposefully unproductive and artificial. "The first duty in life," Wilde wrote in *Phrases and Philosophies for the Use of the Young* (1894), "is to be as artificial as possible." After leaving Oxford he expanded his cult (a following). His iconoclasm (attacking of established religious institutions) clashed with the holiness that came with the Victorian era of the late nineteenth century, but this contradiction was one that he aimed for. Another of his aims was the glorification of youth.

Wilde published his well-received *Poems* in 1881. The next six years were active ones.



Oscar Wilde.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

He spent an entire year lecturing in the United States and then returned to lecture in England. He applied unsuccessfully for a position as a school inspector. In 1884 he married, and his wife bore him children in 1885 and in 1886. He began to publish extensively in the following year. His writing activity became as intense and as inconsistent as his life had been for the previous six years. From 1887 to 1889 Wilde edited the magazine *Woman's World*. His first popular success as a fiction writer was *The Happy Prince and Other Tales* (1888). *The House of Pomegranates* (1892) was another collection of his fairy tales.

Sexuality of Oscar Wilde

In 1886 Wilde became a practicing homosexual, or one who is sexually attracted to a member of their own sex. He believed that his attacks on the Victorian moral code was the inspiration for his writing. He considered himself a criminal who challenged society by creating scandal. Before his conviction (found guilty) for homosexuality in 1895, the scandal was essentially private. Wilde believed in the criminal mentality. "Lord Arthur Savile's Crime," from *Lord Arthur Savile's Crime and Other Stories* (1891), treated murder and its successful cover-up comically. The original version of *The Picture of Dorian Gray* in *Lippincott's Magazine* emphasized the murder of the painter Basil Hallward by Dorian as the turning point in Dorian's downfall. Wilde stressed that criminal tendency became criminal act.

Dorian Gray was published in book form in 1891. The novel was a celebration of youth. Dorian, in a gesture typical of Wilde, is parentless. He does not age, and he is a criminal. Like all of Wilde's work, the novel was a popular success. His only book of formal criticism, *Intentions* (1891), restated many of the views that *Dorian Gray* had emphasized, and it points toward his later plays and stories. *Intentions* emphasized the importance of criticism in an age that Wilde believed was uncritical. For him, criticism was an independent branch of literature, and its function was important.

His dramas

Between 1892 and 1895 Wilde was an active dramatist (writer of plays), writing what he identified as "trivial [unimportant] comedies for serious people." His plays were

popular because their dialogue was baffling, clever, and often short and clear, relying on puns and elaborate word games for their effect. *Lady Windermere's Fan* was produced in 1892, *A Woman of No Importance* in 1893, and *An Ideal Husband* and *The Importance of Being Earnest* in 1895.

On March 2, 1895, Wilde initiated a suit for criminal libel (a statement that damages someone's reputation) against the Marquess of Queensberry, who had objected to Wilde's friendship with his son, Lord Alfred Douglas. When his suit failed in April, countercharges followed. After a spectacular court action, Wilde was convicted of homosexual misconduct and sentenced to two years in prison at hard labor.

Prison transformed Wilde's experience as extremely as had his 1886 introduction to homosexuality. In a sense he had prepared himself for prison and its transformation of his art. *De Profundis* is a moving letter to a friend and apologia (a formal defense) that Wilde wrote in prison; it was first published as a whole in 1905. His theme was that he was not unlike other men and was a scapegoat, or one who bears blame for others. *The Ballad of Reading Gaol* (1898) was written after his release. In this poem a man murdered his mistress and was about to be executed, but Wilde considered him only as criminal as the rest of humanity. He wrote: "For each man kills the thing he loves, / Yet each man does not die."

After Wilde was released from prison he lived in Paris, France. He attempted to write a play in his style before his imprisonment, but this effort failed. He died in Paris on November 30, 1900.

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LAURA INGALLS WILDER

Born: February 7, 1867

Pepin, Wisconsin

Died: February 10, 1957

Mansfield, Missouri

American writer

American author Laura Ingalls Wilder was the creator of the much-loved children's series of "Little House" books that recounted her life as a young girl on the Western frontier during the late 1800s.

Raised on the American prairie

Laura Ingalls Wilder was born Laura Elizabeth Ingalls on February 7, 1867, in Pepin, Wisconsin, the second of four children. She once described her father, Charles

Philip Ingalls, as always jolly and sometimes reckless. Her mother, Caroline Lake Quiner, was educated, gentle, and proud, according to her daughter. Her sisters, all of whom would eventually appear in her books, were Mary, Carrie, and Grace. Laura also had a younger brother, Charles, Jr. (nicknamed Freddie), who died at the age of only nine months.

As a young girl, Laura moved with her family from place to place across America's heartland. In 1874, the Ingalls family left Wisconsin for Walnut Grove, Minnesota, where they lived at first in a dugout house. Two years later, the family moved to Burr Oak, Iowa, where Charles became part-owner of a hotel. By the fall of 1877, however, they had all returned to Walnut Grove. In 1879, the Ingalls family moved again, this time to homestead in the Dakota Territory.

The family finally settled in what would become De Smet, South Dakota, which remained Charles and Caroline's home until they died. Their second winter in De Smet was one of the worst on record. Numerous blizzards prevented trains from delivering any supplies, essentially cutting off the town from December until May. Years later, Laura wrote about her experiences as a young teenager trying to survive the cold temperatures and lack of food, firewood, and other necessities.

Laura attended regular school whenever possible. However, because of her family's frequent moves, she was largely self-taught. In 1882, at the age of fifteen, she received her teaching certificate. For three years, Laura taught at a small country school a dozen miles from her home in De Smet and boarded with a family who lived nearby.



Laura Ingalls Wilder.

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Married a farmer

During this same period, Ingalls came to know Almanzo Manly Wilder, who had settled near De Smet in 1879 with his brother Royal. Almanzo frequently headed out into the country on his sleigh to pick up the young teacher and drop her off at her parents' home for weekend visits. After courting for a little more than two years, they were married on August 25, 1885. Laura Wilder then quit teaching to help her husband on their farm. She later wrote about this time in her life in her book *The First Four Years*.

The couple's only surviving child, Rose, was born on December 5, 1886. Although all

homesteaders (those settling new lands) had to endure the hardships and uncertainty of farm life, the Wilders experienced more than their share of tragedy and misfortune. In August 1889, Wilder gave birth to a baby boy who died shortly after, an event that never appeared in any of her books. Her husband then came down with diphtheria, a terrible disease that causes breathing problems, which left him partially paralyzed. Finally, their house, built by Manly himself, burned to the ground.

On July 17, 1894, the Wilders began their journey to Mansfield, Missouri, the place they would call home for the rest of their lives. There they established a farm and named it Rocky Ridge. Wilder kept a journal of their experiences as they traveled. When she reached Lamar, Missouri, she sent her account of their travels through South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas to the *De Smet News*. This was her first published writing.

Produced her first autobiographical work

By the mid-1920s Wilder and her husband were doing little of their own farming on Rocky Ridge, which allowed her to spend most of her time writing. Around this same time, Rose returned to Missouri, built a new home for her parents on Rocky Ridge, and moved into the old farmhouse. She also began encouraging her mother to write the story of her childhood.

Wilder completed her first autobiographical work in the late 1920s. Entitled *Pioneer Girl*, it was a first-person account of her childhood on the frontier from the time she was three until she reached the age of eighteen. After Rose edited the book, Wilder submitted it to various publishers

under the name Laura Ingalls Wilder. But no one was interested in her chronicle, which contained plenty of historical facts about her childhood but little in the way of character development.

Created the “Little House” books

Refusing to become discouraged, Wilder changed her approach. The “I” in her stories became “Laura,” and the focus moved from the story of one little girl to the story of an entire family’s experiences on the new frontier. Wilder also decided to direct her writing specifically at children. Although she sometimes streamlined events, created or omitted others entirely (such as the birth and death of her brother), and opted for happier endings, she wrote about real people and things that had actually happened.

In 1932, at the age of sixty-five, Wilder published the first of her eight “Little House” books, *Little House in the Big Woods*. It told the story of her early childhood years in Wisconsin and was a huge hit with readers. *Farmer Boy*, an account of Manly’s childhood in New York state, followed in 1933. Two years later, *Little House on the Prairie* appeared on the shelves. Five more books followed that took the reader through Wilder’s courtship and marriage to Manly—*On the Banks of Plum Creek* (1937), *By the Shores of Silver Lake* (1939), *The Long Winter* (1940), *Little Town on the Prairie* (1941), and *These Happy Golden Years* (1943). New editions of all of the “Little House” books were reissued by Harper in 1953 with the now-familiar illustrations of Garth Williams (1912–1996).

Wilder was seventy-six years old when she finished the final book in her “Little House” series. By that time, she and her hus-

band had sold off the majority of their land and virtually all of their livestock, but they still lived on the remaining seventy acres of Rocky Ridge. It was there that Manly died in 1949 at the age of ninety-two.

Wilder was ninety when she died at Rocky Ridge Farm on February 10, 1957. After her death, her daughter, Rose Wilder Lane, edited the diary her mother had written as she and Manly traveled to Missouri, the one that had first appeared in the *De Smet* newspaper. The resulting book, *On the Way Home: The Diary of a Trip from South Dakota to Mansfield, Missouri, in 1894*, was published in 1962. Twelve years later, a television series based on Wilder’s stories debuted and ran for nine seasons. Through her engaging tales of life on the untamed American frontier, Wilder succeeded beyond her wildest dreams at taking a unique time and place of adventure, hardship, and simple pleasures and making it real to scores of young readers across the world.

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THORNTON WILDER

Born: April 17, 1897

Madison, Wisconsin

Died: December 7, 1975

Hamden, Connecticut

American playwright and novelist

Novelist and playwright Thornton Wilder won two Pulitzer Prizes for his plays *Our Town* and *The Skin of Our Teeth*, written in 1938 and 1942 respectively. His most well-known novel, *The Bridge of San Luis Rey*, also won him a Pulitzer Prize in 1927.

Childhood

Thornton Niven Wilder was born on April 17, 1897, in Madison, Wisconsin, the second son of four children of Amos Parker and Isabella Wilder. In 1906 the family moved to China when his father became the United States Consul-General in Hong Kong. The teenager attended the English China Inland Mission School at Cheefoo but returned with his mother and siblings to California in 1912 because of the unstable political conditions in China at the time. While in high school, Wilder became interested in theater and began regularly attending performances of plays. He also began to demonstrate his unique talents for writing.

Graduating in 1915 from Berkeley High School, Wilder attended Oberlin College before transferring to Yale University in 1917. He served with the First Coast Artillery in Rhode Island in 1918 during World War I (1914–18), when Germany waged war

against much of Europe. After the war he returned to his studies at Yale. In 1920 he received his bachelor's degree and saw the first publication of his play *The Trumpet Shall Sound* in *Yale Literary Magazine*.

Writing professionally

Wilder started his novel *The Cabala* at the American Academy in Rome, Italy, in 1921. In New Jersey he taught at the Lawrenceville School while earning a master's degree at Princeton University. He received his degree in 1926, the publication year of *The Cabala*. Its publication came at the same time as the first professional production of *The Trumpet Shall Sound* by the American Laboratory Theater. But it was his breakthrough work, *The Bridge of San Luis Rey* (1927), that thrust him to the forefront of American literature.

A lifelong traveler, Wilder later taught at the University of Chicago, in Illinois, (1930–1936) and the University of Hawaii (1935). He volunteered in World War II (1939–45; the war fought between the Axis: Italy, Germany, and Japan—and the Allies: France, England, the Soviet Union, and the United States). During the war he served in Africa, Italy, and the United States. A lecturer at Harvard in the early 1950s, he received the Gold Medal for Fiction from the Academy of Arts and Letters in 1952. In 1962 he retired to Arizona for almost two years, then renewed his travels. Wilder was awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom in 1963 and the National Book Committee's National Medal for Literature (first time presented) in 1965.

Career as a playwright

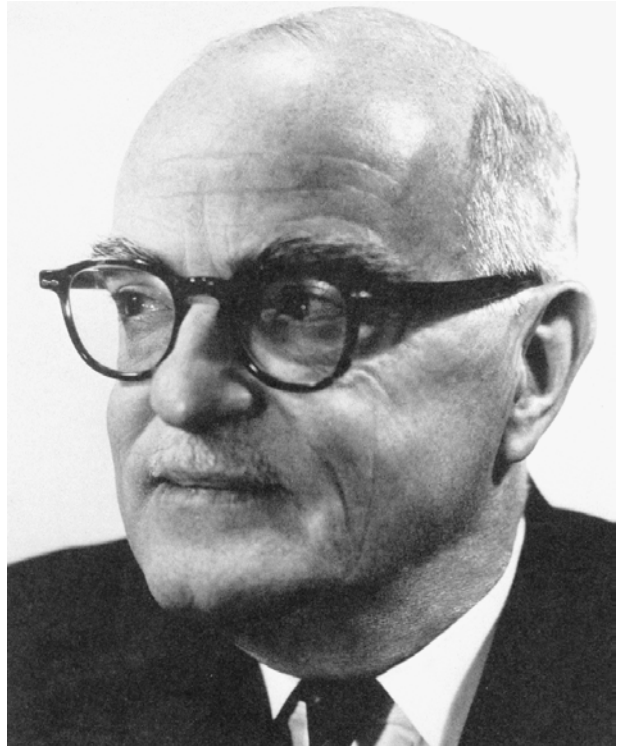
Wilder's first successful dramatic work, which he started at Oberlin, was *The Angel That*

Troubled the Waters (1928). A four-act play, *The Trumpet Shall Sound* (1919–20), was produced unsuccessfully off-Broadway in 1926. *The Long Christmas Dinner and Other Plays in One-Act*, published in 1931, contained three plays that gained popularity with amateur groups: *The Long Christmas Dinner*, *Pullman Car Hiawatha*, and *The Happy Journey to Trenton and Camden*. This last series marked Wilder's trademark use of a bare stage for the actors.

Wilder's first Broadway shows were translations: André Obey's *Lucrece* (1932) and *A Doll's House* (1937) by Henrik Ibsen (1828–1906). His dramatic reputation soared with *Our Town* (1938). Written for a bare stage, guided throughout by a narrator, his script examines a small town for the "something way down deep that's eternal about every human being."

Wilder's dramatic work that followed, *The Merchant of Yonkers*, failed initially in 1938. But when produced with slight changes as *The Matchmaker* in 1954, it proved a fascinating farce, or a show made ridiculous for effect. (It later re-emerged as the musical play *Hello, Dolly!* in 1963, then an overwhelming success.) Wilder mingled style and forms even more daringly in *The Skin of Our Teeth*. Here, Wilder described the human race as flawed but worth preserving. A complex and difficult play that drew from James Joyce's (1882–1941) *Finnegans Wake*, it became the work that claimed him his final Pulitzer Prize in 1943.

The essentially conservative (having to do with the commonly accepted) thematic material staged in radical styles made Wilder's plays unique. His later work included an unsuccessful tragedy, *A Life in the Sun* (or *The Alcestiad*, 1955) and three short plays of an



Thornton Wilder.

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intended fourteen-play cycle: *Someone from Assisi*, *Infancy*, and *Childhood* (produced as *Plays for Bleecker Street* in 1962).

Career as a novelist

Wilder established his reputation as a novelist with *The Cabala*, a minor work that showed Wilder's moral (having to do with wrong or right) concerns. *The Bridge of San Luis Rey*, set in eighteenth-century Peru, proved immensely popular and led to the Pulitzer Prize in 1928. *The Woman of Andros* (1930), based on Terence's (c. 185–159 B.C.E.) play *Andria* was not well received. Although Wilder's view of life encouraged heavy criti-

cism (negative judgment), *Heaven's My Destination* (1934), set in the American Midwest, grew in favor over the years. In *The Ides of March* (1948) Wilder tried a novel approach to Julius Caesar (100–44 B.C.E.). *The Eighth Day* in 1967 returned Wilder to a twentieth-century American setting that examined the lives of two families. Wilder's last novel, *Theophilus North*, was published in 1973.

In line with Wilder's diverse interests and scholarly (having to do with learned knowledge) bent, Wilder lectured and published extensively. His Harvard lectures "Toward an American Language," "The American Loneliness," and "Emily Dickinson" appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly* (1952). His topics addressed play writing, fiction, and the role of the artist in society. His range spanned from the works of the ancient Greeks to modern dramatists (writers of plays), particularly Joyce and Gertrude Stein (1874–1946). His observations and letters were published in a variety of works, from André Maurois's (1885–1967) *A Private Universe* (1932) to Donald Gallup's *The Flowers of Friendship* (1953). Wilder died of a heart attack December 7, 1975, in Hamden, Connecticut.

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TENNESSEE WILLIAMS

Born: March 26, 1914

Columbus, Mississippi

Died: February 25, 1983

New York, New York

American dramatist, playwright, and writer

Tennessee Williams, dramatist and fiction writer, was one of America's major mid-twentieth-century playwrights. He is best known for his powerful plays, *A Streetcar Named Desire* and *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof*.

Becoming Tennessee

Tennessee Williams was born Thomas Lanier Williams in Columbus, Mississippi, on March 26, 1914, the second of three children of Cornelius and Edwina Williams. His father, a traveling salesman, was rarely home and for many years the family lived with his mother's parents. As a result, the young boy developed a close relationship with his grandfather, and also his older sister, Rose. William's family life was never a happy one. His parents were resentful of each other, his mother once describing her husband as "a man's man" who loved to gamble and drink. When his father obtained a position at a shoe factory, the family moved to a crowded, low-rent apartment in St. Louis, Missouri.

About this time, young Thomas adopted the name Tennessee (presumably because many of his descendants hailed from that state). Williams grew to hate St. Louis. He and his sisters were often ridiculed by other students because of their Southern accent.

He also skipped school regularly and did poorly in his studies, preferring instead to escape into the world of reading and writing.

At the age of sixteen Williams published his first story. The next year he entered the University of Missouri but left before taking a degree. He worked for two years for a shoe company, spent a year at Washington University (where he had his first plays produced), and earned a bachelor of arts degree from the State University of Iowa in 1938, the year he published his first short story under his literary name, Tennessee Williams.

In 1940 the Theatre Guild produced Williams's *Battle of Angels* in Boston, Massachusetts. The play was a total failure and was withdrawn after Boston's Watch and Ward Society banned it. Between 1940 and 1945 he lived on grants (donated money) from the Rockefeller Foundation and the American Academy of Arts and Letters, on income scraped together from an attempt to write film scripts in Hollywood, and on wages as a waiter-entertainer in Greenwich Village in New York City.

Accomplished playwright

With the production of *The Glass Menagerie* Williams's fortunes changed. The play opened in Chicago, Illinois, in December 1944 and in New York City in March; it received the New York Drama Critics Circle Award and the Sidney Howard Memorial Award. *You Touched Me!*, written with Donald Windham, opened on Broadway in 1945. It was followed by publication of eleven one-act plays, *27 Wagons Full of Cotton* (1946), and two California productions. When *A Streetcar Named Desire* opened in 1947, New York audiences knew a major playwright had



Tennessee Williams.
Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

arrived. *A Streetcar Named Desire* won a Pulitzer Prize. The play combines sensuality, melodrama, and lyrical symbolism (a poetic representation of significant things). A film version was directed by Elia Kazan (1909–) and their partnership lasted for more than a decade.

Although the plays that followed *Streetcar* never repeated its overwhelming success, they kept Williams's name on theater marquees and in films. His novel *The Roman Spring of Mrs. Stone* (1950) and three volumes of short stories brought him an even wider audience. Some writers consider *Summer and Smoke* (1948) Williams's most sensitive play. While *The Rose*

Tattoo (1951) played to appreciative audiences, *Camino Real* (1953) played to confused ones. *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof* (1955) was a smashing success and won the New York Drama Critics Circle Award and a Pulitzer Prize.

Baby Doll (an original Williams-Kazan film script, 1956) was followed by the dramas *Orpheus Descending* (1957), *Garden District* (1958; two one-act plays, *Something Unspoken* and *Suddenly Last Summer*), *Sweet Bird of Youth* (1959), *Period of Adjustment* (1960), and *The Night of the Iguana* (1961). With these plays, critics charged Williams with publicly trying to solve personal problems, while including confused symbolism, sexual obsessions, thin characterizations, and violence and corruption for their own sake. *The Milk Train Doesn't Stop Here Anymore* (1963), *The Seven Descents of Myrtle* (1963; also called *Kingdom of Earth*), and *In the Bar of a Tokyo Hotel* (1969) neither helped Williams's standing with the critics nor proved that Williams's remarkable talent had vanished. Published after his death, *Not about Nightingales* (1998) had been written in 1938 and was Williams's first full-length play.

Later career

Through the 1970s and 1980s, Williams continued to write for the theater, though he was unable to repeat the success of most of his early years. One of his last plays was *Clothes for a Summer Hotel* (1980), based on passionate love affair between the American writer F. Scott Fitzgerald (1896–1940) and his wife, Zelda.

Two collections of Williams's many one-act plays were published: *27 Wagons Full of Cotton* (1946) and *American Blues* (1948). Williams also wrote fiction, including two novels, *The Roman Spring of Mrs. Stone* (1950)

and *Moise and the World of Reason* (1975). Four volumes of short stories were also published. *One Arm and Other Stories* (1948), *Hard Candy* (1954), *The Nightly Quest* (1969), and *Eight Mortal Ladies Possessed* (1974). Nine of his plays were made into films, and he wrote one original screenplay, *Baby Doll* (1956). In his 1975 tell-all novel, *Memoirs*, Williams described his own problems with alcohol and drugs and his homosexuality (the attraction to members of the same sex).

Williams died in New York City on February 25, 1983. In 1995, the United States Post Office commemorated Williams by issuing a special edition stamp in his name as part of their Literary Arts Series. For several years, literary enthusiasts have gathered to celebrate the man and his work at the Tennessee Williams Scholars Conference. The annual event, held along with the Tennessee Williams/New Orleans Literary Festival, features educational, theatrical and literary programs.

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WOODROW WILSON

Born: December 28, 1856

Staunton, Virginia

Died: February 3, 1924

Washington, D.C.

American president, governor, and educator

Woodrow Wilson was admired as a writer, a scholar, and an educator more than two decades before he became president. He spent twenty-four years working in the academic world as a professor, then as a college president, before he was elected governor of New Jersey. Two years later he was elected president of the United States, led the country through World War I (1914–18) and was the primary architect of the League of Nations.

Early years

Stephen Woodrow Wilson was born in Staunton, Virginia, on December 28, 1856, the son of Joseph and Jeanie Wilson. His father was a Presbyterian minister. Wilson briefly attended Davison University in North Carolina, but transferred to Princeton University and graduated there in 1879. He received his doctorate in 1886 from Johns Hopkins University.

In his doctoral thesis Wilson analyzed the American political system, and criticized what he believed was a breakdown of power in Congress, which was caused by the committee system. He believed that the president ought to solely lead the nation, a view that did not change once he was in the White House.

From 1886 to 1910 Wilson was in academic life—as a professor of political science at Bryn Mawr College, Wesleyan University, and Princeton. In 1902, he was named president of Princeton. He strongly favored an educational system that promoted a close relationship between teachers and students.

From academia to politics

By 1910 Wilson had established such a solid reputation as an educator that the Democratic party in New Jersey offered him the nomination for governor. After winning the election, Governor Wilson showed strong leadership, pushing through legislation dealing with such issues as employers' liability and public utilities. His success made him a prominent candidate for the presidency in 1912. He was nominated on the forty-sixth ballot, and went on to soundly defeat former president Theodore Roosevelt (1858–1919) and current president William Howard Taft (1857–1930) in the November election.

First term as president

In the first two years of his presidency Wilson dominated the Democratic-controlled Congress and secured legislation of great historical significance. The tariff (duties or a kind of tax) was revised downward, beginning a policy that was to be of substantial importance later. The Federal Reserve Act created a banking system under governmental control. The Federal Trade Commission Act created a body that has had an important role in preventing monopolies (an overwhelming concentration of power in an industry).

Early on Wilson faced difficult questions of foreign policy. Wilson refused to recognize



Woodrow Wilson.

Courtesy of the Library of Congress.

Mexico's new military dictator president, Victoriano Huerta, and worked for social reform in that country. In 1914 Wilson ordered the occupation of Veracruz to prevent Huerta from receiving arms from abroad. War was averted when the countries of Argentina, Brazil, and Chile mediated. Huerta was soon overthrown.

Beginning of World War I

In August 1914 World War I broke out in Europe. This was a particularly difficult time for Wilson. In addition to the beginning of the war, his wife, Ellen Axson Wilson

(1860–1914) died. The grieving president kept himself busy with his work and confided in his three daughters and a few close friends. His grief lightened early the following year, when he met Edith Bolling Galt (1872–1961). The couple married in December 1915.

Wilson kept the United States out of the war based on a policy of neutrality (taking no side). But there is little doubt that he sympathized with France and Great Britain and feared the victory of imperial Germany. The warring countries soon began interfering with American trade. The British restricted American commerce, but the Germans proclaimed a new kind of warfare, submarine warfare, with the prospect of American ships being sunk and their passengers and crew being lost. Wilson took German policies more seriously, because they involved the potential destruction of human life, whereas the British interfered only with trade. As early as February 1915, in response to a German declaration instituting the U-boat war, the president declared that Germany would be held to "strict accountability" for the loss of American lives.

For a time thereafter Wilson took no action. But on May 7, 1915, the liner *Lusitania* was sunk, with over a hundred American lives lost. The President addressed a stiff note to Germany. After other painful submarine episodes, Wilson convinced Germany to abandon the U-boat war in 1916.

In the meantime the presidential campaign of 1916 was approaching. Wilson was easily renominated and went on to win a close election against the Republican candidate, former Supreme Court justice (and future chief justice) Charles Evans Hughes

(1862–1948). Part of Wilson's success came from the Democratic platform that touted the president's ability to keep the United States at peace. "He kept us out of war" was a successful pro-Wilson slogan, though Wilson never promised anything about the country's future involvement in the war.

Second term as president

Wilson's efforts to bring the warring countries together were not successful. When the German government sought unlimited warfare on the sea, Wilson severed diplomatic relations with that nation but continued to hope that a direct challenge could be avoided. But on April 2, 1917, Wilson asked Congress for a declaration of war against Germany, and Congress overwhelmingly approved.

Wilson believed that the defeat of Germany was necessary, but he held out hope that at the end of the war a League of Nations might be established that would make impossible the recurrence of another bloody struggle. As early as April 1916 the president had begun to formulate his views on this. He was in favor of an association of nations that would act together against any nation that disrupted peace. There was much support for his point of view.

Fourteen Points

Throughout the war Wilson insisted on two things: the defeat of German militarism and the establishment of peace resting on just principles. In January 1918 he proposed the "Fourteen Points" that would need to be met in order to secure an armistice (cease fire) and begin serious peace negotiations. In the negotiations that autumn he made the acceptance of these points the primary condi-

tion on the part of his European associates and of the Germans as well. In November 1918 Wilson succeeded; an armistice was signed. Throughout the world Wilson was looked at with great esteem.

But difficulties loomed. The 1918 elections returned a Republican majority to Congress. The president himself stimulated partisanship by his appeal to elect a Democratic legislature. Though he selected able men to accompany him to the forthcoming peace conference in Paris, France, he did not think of accommodating the Republican opposition. By insisting on going to Paris in person and remaining there until the treaty was finished, he cut himself off from American opinion.

Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations

At the peace conference Wilson strove to realize his ideals. He worked on drafting the Covenant of the League of Nations. This would provide for a League Council of the five great world powers and four elective members and for an assembly in which every member state would have a vote. Disputes would either go to arbitration or be decided amongst council members. If they failed to do this, they would be subjected to economic and possibly to military sanctions. They were also to agree to respect and preserve the territorial integrity and political independence of the members of the League.

At the talks that eventually led to the Treaty of Versailles, Wilson argued successfully for fairness on many issues, but he had to compromise on two vital points: France and England insisted on huge war reparations (payments for damages) against Germany; and Japan, which had joined the Allies

late in the war, was allowed to keep control of a province of China it had invaded. Wilson deeply opposed both resolutions, but he compromised to keep alive his vision for the League of Nations.

The Treaty of Versailles was not to stand the test of time. In detaching substantial territories from Germany and in fixing Germany with responsibility for the war, it furnished the basis for that German nationalism which was to strengthen with Adolf Hitler (1889–1945).

Wilson returned to the United States with a political battle ahead. Many disliked the Treaty of Versailles and opposed the “world politics” concept of the League of Nations. He erred in demanding ratification of the treaty without any changes. He made his appeal in an exhausting countrywide tour. He was hailed by large, enthusiastic crowds, but his health gave way, forcing him back to the White House. A stroke temporarily incapacitated him.

The Senate rejected unconditional ratification but adopted the treaty with reservations that Wilson refused to accept. In January 1920 a compromise was attempted. But Wilson spoiled these efforts by including the issue in the 1920 presidential campaign. In the fall election the Republican candidate, U.S. senator Warren G. Harding (1865–1923) of Ohio, easily defeated a fellow Ohioan, Governor James M. Cox (1870–1957). The new chief executive never sought to bring the Treaty of Versailles to the Senate or to bring the United States into the League, which was by now actually in existence. Wilson’s presidency ended in a stunning defeat. Despite this disappointing end to Wilson’s eight years in the White House, many historians view him as one of the country’s great presidents. Wilson died on February 3, 1924.

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OPRAH WINFREY

Born: January 29, 1954

Kosciusko, Mississippi

African American television host and actress

America’s first lady of talk shows, Oprah Winfrey is well known for surpassing her competition to become the most watched daytime show host on television. Her natural style with guests and audiences on the *Oprah Winfrey Show* earned her widespread popularity, as well as her own production company, Harpo, Inc.

A difficult childhood

Oprah Gail Winfrey was born to Vernita Lee and Vernon Winfrey on an isolated farm

in Kosciusko, Mississippi, on January 29, 1954. Her name was supposed to be Orpah, from the Bible, but because of the difficulty of spelling and pronunciation, she was known as Oprah almost from birth. Winfrey's unmarried parents separated soon after she was born and left her in the care of her maternal grandmother on the farm.

As a child, Winfrey entertained herself by "playacting" in front of an "audience" of farm animals. Under the strict guidance of her grandmother, she learned to read at two and a half years old. She addressed her church congregation about "when Jesus rose on Easter Day" when she was two years old. Then Winfrey skipped kindergarten after writing a note to her teacher on the first day of school saying she belonged in the first grade. She was promoted to third grade after that year.

At six years old Winfrey was sent north to join her mother and two half-brothers in a Milwaukee ghetto, an extremely poor and dangerous neighborhood. At twelve years old she was sent to live with her father in Nashville, Tennessee. Feeling secure and happy for a brief period she began making speeches at social gatherings and churches, and one time earned five hundred dollars for a speech. She knew then that she wanted to be "paid to talk."

Winfrey, again, was called back by her mother, and she had to leave the safety of her father's home. The poor, urban lifestyle had its negative effect on Winfrey as a young teenager, and her problems were compounded by repeated sexual abuse, starting at age nine, by men that others in her family trusted. Her mother worked odd jobs and did not have much time for supervision.



Oprah Winfrey.

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After years of bad behavior, Winfrey's mother sent her back to her father in Nashville.

A turning point

Winfrey said her father saved her life. He was very strict and provided her with guidance, structure, rules, and books. He required his daughter to complete weekly book reports, and she went without dinner until she learned five new vocabulary words each day.

Winfrey became an excellent student, participating as well in the drama club, debate club, and student council. In an Elks Club speaking contest, she won a full schol-

arship to Tennessee State University. The following year she was invited to a White House Conference on Youth. Winfrey was crowned Miss Fire Prevention by WVOL, a local Nashville radio station, and was hired by the station to read afternoon newscasts.

Winfrey became Miss Black Nashville and Miss Tennessee during her freshman year at Tennessee State. The Nashville Columbia Broadcasting System (CBS) affiliate offered her a job; Winfrey turned it down twice, but finally took the advice of a speech teacher, who reminded her that job offers from CBS were "the reason people go to college." The show was seen each evening on WTVF-TV, and Winfrey was Nashville's first African American female coanchor of the evening news. She was nineteen years old and still a sophomore in college.

Professional career

After Winfrey graduated, WJZ-TV in Baltimore, Maryland, scheduled her to do the local news updates, called cut-ins, during *Good Morning, America*, and soon she was moved to the morning talk show *Baltimore Is Talking* with cohost Richard Sher. After seven years on the show, the general manager of WLS-TV, American Broadcasting Company's (ABC) Chicago affiliate, saw Winfrey in an audition tape sent in by her producer, Debra DiMaio. At the time her ratings in Baltimore were better than Phil Donahue's, a national talk-show host, and she and DiMaio were hired.

Winfrey moved to Chicago, Illinois, in January 1984 and took over as anchor on *A.M. Chicago*, a morning talk show that was consistently last in the ratings. She changed the emphasis of the show from traditional women's

issues to current and controversial (debatable) topics, and after one month the show was even with Donahue's program. Three months later it had inched ahead. In September 1985 the program, renamed the *Oprah Winfrey Show*, was expanded to one hour. As a result, Donahue moved to New York City.

In 1985 Quincy Jones (1933–) saw Winfrey on television and thought she would make a fine actress in a movie he was coproducing with director Steven Spielberg (1946–). The film was based on the Alice Walker (1944–) novel *The Color Purple*. Her only acting experience until then had been in a one-woman show, *The History of Black Women Through Drama and Song*, which she performed during an African American theater festival in 1978.

Popularity of Oprah

The popularity of Winfrey's show skyrocketed after the success of *The Color Purple*, and in September 1985 the distributor King World bought the syndication rights (the rights to distribute a television program) to air the program in one hundred thirty-eight cities, a record for first-time syndication. That year, although *Donahue* was being aired on two hundred stations, Winfrey won her time slot by 31 percent, drew twice the Chicago audience as Donahue, and carried the top ten markets in the United States.

In 1986 Winfrey received a special award from the Chicago Academy for the Arts for unique contributions to the city's artistic community and was named Woman of Achievement by the National Organization of Women. The *Oprah Winfrey Show* won several Emmys for Best Talk Show, and Winfrey was honored as Best Talk Show Host.

Production

Winfrey formed her own production company, Harpo, Inc., in August 1986 to produce the topics that she wanted to see produced, including the television drama miniseries based on Gloria Naylor's *The Women of Brewster Place*, in which Winfrey was featured along with Cicely Tyson, Robin Givens, Olivia Cole, Jackee, Paula Kelly, and Lynn Whitfield. The miniseries aired in March 1989 and a regular series called *Brewster Place*, also starring Winfrey, debuted on ABC in May 1990. Winfrey also owned the screen rights to *Kaffir Boy*, Mark Mathabane's autobiographical (having to do with a story about oneself) book about growing up under apartheid in South Africa, as well as Toni Morrison's (1931–) novel *Beloved*.

In September 1996 Winfrey started an on-air reading club. On September 17 Winfrey stood up and announced she wanted "to get the country reading." She told her adoring fans to hasten to the stores to buy the book she had chosen. They would then discuss it together on the air the following month.

The initial reaction was astonishing. *The Deep End of the Ocean* had generated significant sales for a first novel; sixty-eight thousand copies had gone into the stores since June. But between the last week in August, when Winfrey told her plans to the publisher, and the September on-air announcement, Viking printed ninety thousand more. By the time the discussion was broadcast on October 18, there were seven hundred fifty thousand copies in print. The book became a number one best-seller, and another one hundred thousand were printed before February 1997.

The club ensured Winfrey as the most powerful book marketer in the United States. She sent more people to bookstores than morning news programs, other daytime shows, evening magazines, radio shows, print reviews, and feature articles combined. But after a six-year run with her book club, Winfrey decided to cut back in the spring of 2002 and no longer have the book club as a monthly feature.

The future

Although one of the wealthiest women in America and the highest paid entertainer in the world, Winfrey has made generous contributions to charitable organizations and institutions such as Morehouse College, the Harold Washington Library, the United Negro College Fund, and Tennessee State University.

Winfrey renewed her contract with King World Productions to continue *The Oprah Winfrey Show* through the 2003–2004 television season. Winfrey and Harpo Production company plan to develop other syndicated television programming with King World.

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ANNA MAY WONG

Born: January 3, 1905

Los Angeles, California

Died: February 3, 1961

Santa Monica, California

Asian American actress

Anna May Wong is chiefly remembered as the first actress of Asian descent to achieve stardom as the “Oriental temptress,” so much a fixture of melodramas in the late 1920s and 1930s.

Childhood

Born on Flower Street in Los Angeles, California, in 1907, Anna May Wong was named Wong Liu Tsong, which in Cantonese means “frosted yellow willow.” Wong was third-generation Chinese American; her father was born in Sacramento, California, and his father had moved to California during the Gold Rush, where thousands flocked to the state in hopes of striking it rich with gold.

Growing up, Wong and her six brothers and sisters lived in an apartment over the family’s run-down laundry. Her first memories were of constant steam and the strong odor of hot-ironed linen. As a young child, Wong became fascinated with the brand new world of movies. She began skipping Chinese school in the evenings to watch such movies as *The Perils of Pauline* (1914) at the local theater. By the time she was eleven, Wong decided she was going to be a movie actress. Against all odds, she got her first part at age fourteen when an agent hired three hundred Chinese girls as extras in the 1919 film *The*

Red Lantern. Hardly visible in the film, she went on to get a few more minor roles.

Hollywood calls

For two years, Wong worked after school as an extra without telling her parents, who, she knew, would not approve. At age sixteen, her father found her a job as a secretary, but Wong was fired as unqualified one week later. When she returned home, fearing her father’s anger, she found a letter from a director’s office offering her a role in the film *Bits of Life* (1921). It would bring Wong her first screen credit. Although Wong’s father strongly objected to his daughter’s chosen career, he eventually gave in on the condition that an adult escort, often he himself, would accompany the young Wong on the film sets at all times. When she was not in front of the cameras, her father locked her into her room on the set.

At age seventeen, Wong had one of the few romantic lead roles she would ever play in *Toll of the Sea* (1923), the first Technicolor (an early color film) feature ever made. As a young village girl who marries an American sailor, Wong captured the media’s attention for the first time. Reporters began to appear at the laundry in the hopes of catching Wong for an interview or a photo.

International fame came in 1924 with *The Thief of Bagdad*, in which Wong played an exotic Mongol slave girl opposite star Douglas Fairbanks Sr. (1883–1939). Wong’s role embarrassed her family. Although Wong would continue to support her family for many years, she remained close only to her brother, Richard.

The movie star's life

The success of *Bagdad* led to countless new offers. She appeared as an Eskimo in *The Alaskan* and a Native American girl in *Peter Pan*. In addition to film roles, Wong also worked as a model. She made a few more films, but soon became aggravated with the roles and with Hollywood's practice of casting non-Asians in the few leading Asian roles. Wong finally fled to Europe where, in London, she costarred with Charles Laughton (1899–1962) in *Piccadilly*. After the film, director Basil Dean produced a Chinese play, *A Circle of Chalk*, specifically for Wong. She successfully played opposite the rising new talent, Laurence Olivier (1907–1989), in London's New Theater.

Wong remained in Europe for three years, where she was hailed for her film and stage appearances. In Germany and France, she made foreign versions of her British films, including Germany's first sound picture. She spoke both German and French so fluently that critics could hardly believe they were hearing her voice instead of a native actress. During her career, Wong taught herself to speak English, Chinese, French, German, and Italian.

Wong's next screen role, *Daughter of the Dragon*, cast her in yet another stereotypical (having to do with opinions based on generalizations) role as the daughter of the infamous Dr. Fu Manchu. Wong then appeared in the thriller *Shanghai Express*, starring Marlene Dietrich (1901–1992). Wong's portrayal of the bad-girl-turned-good inspired better reviews than Dietrich received. Years later, the star would complain that Wong had upstaged her.



Anna May Wong.

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An early retirement

In 1942, finally fed up with the Hollywood system, Wong retired from films at the age of thirty-five. Throughout the war, she contributed to the war efforts by working for the United China Relief Fund and touring with the United Service Organizations, Inc. (USO; a group that provided entertainment and other services for the U.S. military). During the 1940s and 1950s, Wong took occasional small parts on television, even starring in her own series, *Mme. Liu Tsong*, in which she played the owner of an international chain of art galleries who was also a sleuth.

Seventeen years after retirement, Wong attempted a film comeback. She returned as Lana Turner's (1920–1995) mysterious housekeeper in the 1950 film, *Portrait in Black*. In 1961, while she was preparing for the role of the mother in *Flower Drum Song*, Wong died of a heart attack in her sleep.

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TIGER WOODS

Born: December 30, 1975

Cypress, California

African/Asian American golfer

American golfer Tiger Woods is the youngest man ever, and the first man of color, to win the Masters Tournament of golf.

Childhood in golf

Tiger Woods was born Eldrick Woods on December 30, 1975, in Cypress, California. He is the only child of Earl and Kultida Woods. His parents identified their son's talent at an unusually early age. They said that he was playing with a putter before he could walk. The boy was gifted not only with excep-

tional playing abilities, but he also possessed a passion for the sport. Woods first gained national attention on a talk show when he beat the famed comedian and avid golfer Bob Hope (1903–) in a putting contest. The young boy was only three at the time, and he was quickly hailed as a prodigy, or a child with remarkable talent. Not long after that, when he was five years old, Woods was featured on the popular television show *That's Incredible!*

Tiger's father has never denied that he devoted his energies to developing his son's talent and to furthering the boy's career as a golfer. During practice sessions, Tiger learned to maintain his composure and to hold his concentration while his father persistently made extremely loud noises and created other distractions. All the while, Tiger's mother made sure that her son's rare talent and his budding golf career would not interfere with his childhood or his future happiness. His mother was a native of Thailand and passed on to her son the mystical ideals of Buddhism, an eastern religion that seeks to go beyond human suffering and existence.

In many ways Woods grew up as a typical middle-class American boy. He developed a taste for junk food and an affection for playing video games. He also spent a fair share of his time clowning around in front of his father's ever-present video camera. As for playing golf, there is no question that the sport was the focus of his childhood. He spent many hours practicing his swing and playing in youth tournaments. Woods was eight years old when he won his first formal competition. From that point he became virtually unstoppable, winning trophies and breaking amateur records everywhere. Media accounts of the boy prodigy had reached

nearly legendary proportions by 1994, when he entered Stanford University as a freshman on a full golf scholarship.

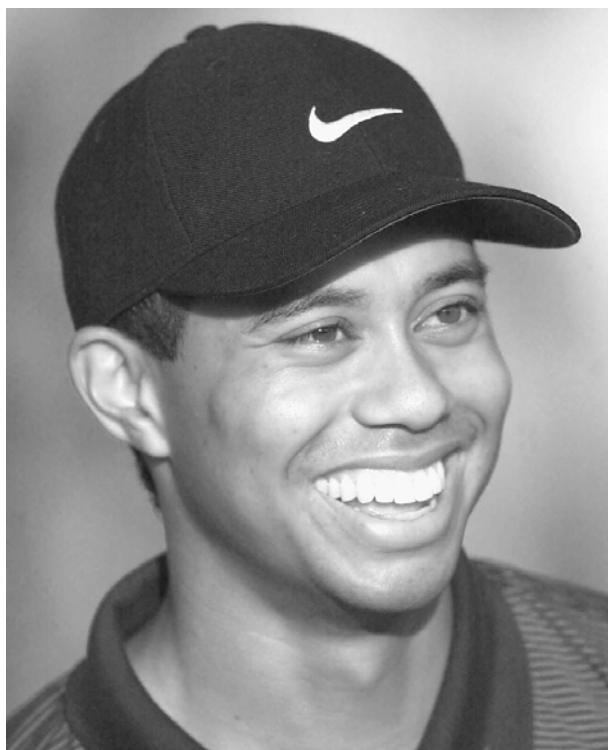
College years

During Woods's first year of college, he won the U.S. Amateur title and qualified to play in the Masters tournament in Augusta, Georgia, in the spring of 1995. Although he played as an amateur—not for prize money—Woods's reputation preceded him. By 1996, Woods had won three U.S. Amateur titles, one after another, an amazing accomplishment in itself. Woods was only twenty years old, and in August of 1996, he decided to quit college in order to play professional golf.

Four months later in December, Woods celebrated his twenty-first birthday. He marked the occasion with a legal name change, from Eldrick to Tiger. Woods had been called Tiger by his father even as a youngster. The nickname stuck, and Woods had always been known to his friends, and to the press, as Tiger. It soon became evident that he was destined for success. *Sports Illustrated* named him 1996 "Sportsman of the Year," and by January of 1997, he had already won three professional tournaments. He was a media sensation.

Tiger the champion

In April of 1997, only eight months into Woods's professional career, he played in the prestigious (important and famous) Masters tournament held at Georgia's Augusta National Golf Club. The Masters title is perhaps the greatest honor in the world of golf. In addition to hefty prize money, first-place winners are awarded a green blazer to symbolize their membership among the top golfers in the world.



Tiger Woods.

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When the tournament was over, Woods had made history as the youngest person ever to win the Masters title. His score was an unprecedented 270 strokes. His victory margin set another record—twelve strokes ahead of the runner-up. This feat was enhanced by the fact that Woods was the first man of color ever to win the title. He accepted all of these honors with grace and humility, and gave tribute to the African American golfers who came before him and helped pave the way. He also honored his mother (who is Asian) by reminding the world of his diverse ethnic background; he is African American, Thai, Chinese, Native American, and Caucasian.

Less than three months passed until July 6, 1997, when Woods won the Western Open, another major golf tournament. Critics credited his amazing success to relentless work and an extraordinary desire to win.

Impact of Tiger Woods

Woods is credited too with popularizing the sport of golf, not only among African American people and other minorities, but among children of all backgrounds. His personal sponsorship of programs for children has been reported for years, and at least one corporate sponsor found that in order to secure an endorsement (an official document of agreement) from Tiger Woods the price would include the added cost of a generous donation to the Tiger Woods Foundation for inner city children.

In 1999 Woods achieved the greatest moment in his career when he won the PGA Championship by one shot. He had been in the lead for most of the tournament, but lost his lead on the last day, making his one stroke victory over Sergio Garcia even more memorable for the crowd that had gathered to watch. Woods continued his success in November 1999 when he shot the best total ever in the World Cup, helping to lead the United States to victory in the tournament. He was also named the PGA Tour Player of the Year for the second time on November 30, 1999, earning more than \$6.6 million in prize money during the season.

On January 9, 2000, Woods won the Mercedes Championship. It was his fifth consecutive victory and, at the time, golf's longest winning streak in forty-six years. On February 7, 2000, he extended that streak by winning the Pebble Beach National Pro-Am. He became

the first player since Ben Hogan (1912–1997) in 1948 to win six straight tour events. He went on to win the Bay Hill Invitational on March 19, 2000. On June 18, 2000, he won the U.S. Open, his third major championship. The next month, on July 23, he won the British Open, thus winning the Grand Slam. He became the youngest player to win all four major championships and just the fifth ever.

On April 8, 2001, Woods won the sixty-fifth Masters Tournament at the Augusta National Golf Club. The win made him the only golfer in history to hold the four major championship titles at the same time. Woods won the sixty-sixth Masters Tournament on April 14, 2002. At the turn of the twenty-first century, Woods was the most dominant figure in all of sports, and his name will surely be decorated throughout the record books before his career is over.

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**VIRGINIA
WOOLF**

**Born: January 25, 1882
London, England**

Died: March 28, 1941

Lewes, Sussex, England

English novelist, critic, and essayist

The English novelist, critic, and essayist Virginia Woolf ranks as one of England's most distinguished writers of the middle part of the twentieth century. Her novels can perhaps best be described as impressionistic, a literary style which attempts to inspire impressions rather than recreating reality.

Early years and marriage

Virginia Stephen was born in London on January 25, 1882. She was the daughter of Sir Leslie Stephen, a famous scholar and philosopher (a seeker of knowledge) who, among many literary occupations, was at one time editor of *Cornhill Magazine* and the *Dictionary of National Biography*. James Russell Lowell, the American poet, was her godfather. Her mother, Julia Jackson, died when the child was twelve or thirteen years old. Virginia and her sister were educated at home in their father's library, where Virginia also met his famous friends who included G. E. Moore (1873–1958) and E. M. Forster (1879–1970). Young Virginia soon fell deep into the world of literature.

In 1912, eight years after her father's death, Virginia married Leonard Woolf, a brilliant young writer and critic from Cambridge, England, whose interests in literature as well as in economics and the labor movement were well suited to hers. In 1917, for amusement, they founded the Hogarth Press by setting and handprinting on an old press *Two Stories* by "L. and V. Woolf." The volume was a success, and over the years they published many important books, including *Pre-*

lude by Katherine Mansfield (1888–1923), then an unknown writer; *Poems* by T. S. Eliot (1888–1965); and *Kew Gardens* by Virginia Woolf. The policy of the Hogarth Press was to publish the best and most original work that came to its attention, and the Woolfs as publishers favored young and unknown writers. Virginia's older sister Vanessa, who married the critic Clive Bell, participated in this venture by designing dust jackets for the books issued by the Hogarth Press.

Virginia Woolf's home in Tavistock Square, Bloomsbury, became a literary and art center, attracting such diverse intellectuals as Lytton Strachey (1880–1932), Arthur Waley (1889–1966), Victoria Sackville-West (1892–1962), John Maynard Keynes (1883–1943), and Roger Fry (1866–1934). These artists, critics, and writers became known as the Bloomsbury group. Roger Fry's theory of art may have influenced Virginia's technique as a novelist. Broadly speaking, the Bloomsbury group drew from the philosophic interests of its members (who had been educated at Cambridge) the values of love and beauty as essential to life.

As critic and essayist

Virginia Woolf began writing essays for the *Times Literary Supplement* (London) when she was young, and over the years these and other essays were collected in a two-volume series called *The Common Reader* (1925, 1933). These studies range with affection and understanding through all of English literature. Students of fiction have drawn upon these criticisms as a means of understanding Virginia Woolf's own direction as a novelist.

An essay frequently studied is "Mr. Bennett and Mrs. Brown," written in 1924, in



Virginia Woolf.

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which Virginia Woolf described the manner in which the older-generation novelist Arnold Bennett would have portrayed Mrs. Brown, a lady casually met in a railway carriage, by giving her a house and furniture and a position in the world. She then contrasted this method with another: one that exhibits a new interest in Mrs. Brown, the mysteries of her person, her consciousness (awareness), and the consciousness of the observer responding to her.

Achievement as novelist

Two of Virginia Woolf's novels in particular, *Mrs. Dalloway* (1925) and *To the Light-*

house (1927), successfully follow the latter approach. The first novel covers a day in the life of Mrs. Dalloway in postwar London; it achieves its vision of reality through the reception by Mrs. Dalloway's mind of what Virginia Woolf called those "myriad impressions—trivial, fantastic, evanescent [vanishing], or engraved with the sharpness of steel."

To the Lighthouse is, in a sense, a family portrait and history rendered in subjective (characterized by personal views) depth through selected points in time. Part I deals with the time between six o'clock in the evening and dinner. Primarily through the consciousness of Mrs. Ramsay, it presents the clash of the male and female sensibilities in the family; Mrs. Ramsay functions as a means of balance and settling disputes. Part II is a moving section of loss during the interval between Mrs. Ramsay's death and the family's revisit to the house. Part III moves toward completion of this complex portrait through the adding of a last detail to a painting by an artist guest, Lily Briscoe, and through the final completion of a plan, rejected by the father in Part I, for him and the children to sail out to the lighthouse.

Last years and other books

Virginia Woolf was the author of about fifteen books, the last, *A Writer's Diary*, posthumously (after death) published in 1953. Her death by drowning in Lewes, Sussex, England, on March 28, 1941, has often been regarded as a suicide brought on by the unbearable strains of life during World War II (1939–45; a war fought between the Axis powers: Japan, Italy, and Germany—and the Allies: France, England, the Soviet Union, and the United States). The true explanation

seems to be that she had regularly felt symptoms of a mental breakdown and feared it would be permanent.

Mrs. Dalloway, *To the Lighthouse*, and *Jacob's Room* (1922) represent Virginia Woolf's major achievements. *The Voyage Out* (1915) first brought her critical attention. *Night and Day* (1919) is traditional in method. The short stories of *Monday or Tuesday* (1921) brought critical praise. In *The Waves* (1931) she masterfully employed the stream-of-consciousness technique which stresses "free writing." Other experimental novels include *Orlando* (1928), *The Years* (1937), and *Between the Acts* (1941). Virginia Woolf's championship of women's rights is reflected in the essays in *A Room of One's Own* (1929) and in *Three Guineas* (1938).

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WILLIAM WORDSWORTH

Born: April 7, 1770

Cookermouth, Cumberland, England

Died: April 23, 1850

Rydal Mount, Westmorland, England

English poet

William Wordsworth was an early leader of romanticism (a literary movement that celebrated nature and concentrated on human emotions) in English poetry and ranks as one of the greatest lyric poets in the history of English literature.

His early years

William Wordsworth was born on April 7, 1770, in Cookermouth, Cumberland, England, the second child of an attorney. Unlike the other major English romantic poets, he enjoyed a happy childhood under the loving care of his mother and was very close to his sister Dorothy. As a child he wandered happily through the lovely natural scenery of Cumberland. In grammar school, Wordsworth showed a keen interest in poetry. He was fascinated by the epic poet John Milton (1608–1674).

From 1787 to 1790 Wordsworth attended St. John's College at Cambridge University. He always returned to his home and to nature during his summer vacations. Before graduating from Cambridge, he took a walking tour through France, Switzerland, and Italy in 1790. The Alps made an impression on him that he did not recognize until fourteen years later.

Stay in France

Revolutionary passion in France made a powerful impact on Wordsworth, who returned there in November 1791. He wanted to improve his knowledge of the



William Wordsworth.

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French language. His experience in France just after the French Revolution (1789; the French overthrew the ruling monarchy) reinforced his sympathy for common people and his belief in political freedom.

Wordsworth fell passionately in love with a French girl, Annette Vallon. She gave birth to their daughter in December 1792. However, Wordsworth had spent his limited funds and was forced to return home. The separation left him with a sense of guilt that deepened his poetic inspiration and resulted in an important theme in his work of abandoned women.

Publication of first poems

Wordsworth's first poems, *Descriptive Sketches* and *An Evening Walk*, were printed in 1793. He wrote several pieces over the next several years. The year 1797 marked the beginning of Wordsworth's long friendship with Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772–1834). Together they published *Lyrical Ballads* in 1798. Wordsworth wanted to challenge "the gaudiness [unnecessarily flashy] and inane [foolish] phraseology [wording] of many modern writers." Most of his poems in this collection centered on the simple yet deeply human feelings of ordinary people, phrased in their own language. His views on this new kind of poetry were more fully described in the important "Preface" that he wrote for the second edition (1800).

"Tintern Abbey"

Wordsworth's most memorable contribution to this volume was "Lines Composed a Few Miles Above Tintern Abbey," which he wrote just in time to include it. This poem is the first major piece to illustrate his original talent at its best. It skillfully combines matter-of-factness in natural description with a genuinely mystical (magical) sense of infinity, joining self-exploration to philosophical speculation (questioning). The poem closes on a subdued but confident reassertion of nature's healing power, even though mystical insight may be obtained from the poet.

In its successful blending of inner and outer experience, of sense perception, feeling, and thought, "Tintern Abbey" is a poem in which the writer becomes a symbol of mankind. The poem leads to imaginative thoughts about man and the universe. This cosmic outlook rooted in the self is a central

feature of romanticism. Wordsworth's poetry is undoubtedly the most impressive example of this view in English literature.

Poems of the middle period

Wordsworth, even while writing his contributions to the *Lyrical Ballads*, had been feeling his way toward more ambitious schemes. He had embarked on a long poem in unrhymed verse, "The Ruined Cottage," later referred to as "The Peddler." It was intended to form part of a vast philosophical poem with the title "The Recluse, or Views of Man, Nature and Society." This grand project never materialized as originally planned.

Abstract, impersonal speculation was not comfortable for Wordsworth. He could handle experiences in the philosophical-lyrical manner only if they were closely related to himself and could arouse his creative feelings and imagination. During the winter months he spent in Germany, he started work on his magnum opus (greatest work), *The Prelude, or Growth of a Poet's Mind*. It was published after his death.

However, such a large achievement was still beyond Wordsworth's scope (area of capabilities) at this time. It was back to the shorter poetic forms that he turned during the most productive season of his long literary life, the spring of 1802. The output of these fertile (creative) months mostly came from his earlier inspirations: nature and the common people. During this time he wrote "To a Butterfly," "I Wandered Lonely as a Cloud," "To the Cuckoo," "The Rainbow," and other poems.

Changes in philosophy

The crucial event of this period was Wordsworth's loss of the sense of mystical oneness, which had sustained (lasted throughout) his highest imaginative flights. Indeed, a mood of despondency (depression) descended over Wordsworth, who was then thirty-two years old.

In the summer of 1802 Wordsworth spent a few weeks in Calais, France, with his sister Dorothy. Wordsworth's renewed contact with France only confirmed his disillusionment (disappointment) with the French Revolution and its aftermath.

During this period Wordsworth had become increasingly concerned with Coleridge, who by now was almost totally dependent upon opium (a highly addictive drug) for relief from his physical sufferings. Both friends came to believe that the realities of life were in stark contradiction (disagreement) to the visionary expectations of their youth. Wordsworth characteristically sought to redefine his own identity in ways that would allow him a measure of meaning. The new turn his life took in 1802 resulted in an inner change that set the new course his poetry followed from then on.

Poems about England and Scotland began pouring forth from Wordsworth's pen, while France and Napoleon (1769–1821) soon became Wordsworth's favorite symbols of cruelty and oppression. His nationalistic (intense pride in one's own country) inspiration led him to produce the two "Memorials of a Tour in Scotland" (1803, 1814) and the group entitled "Poems Dedicated to National Independence and Liberty."

Poems of 1802

The best poems of 1802, however, deal with a deeper level of inner change. In Wordsworth's poem "Intimations of Immortality" (March–April), he plainly recognized that "The things which I have seen I now can see no more"; yet he emphasized that although the "visionary gleam" had fled, the memory remained, and although the "celestial light" had vanished, the "common sight" of "meadow, grove and stream" was still a potent (strong) source of delight and solace (comfort).

Thus Wordsworth shed his earlier tendency to idealize nature and turned to a more sedate (calm) doctrine (set of beliefs) of orthodox Christianity. Younger poets and critics soon blamed him for this "recantation" (renouncing), which they equated with his change of mind about the French Revolution. His *Ecclesiastical Sonnets* (1822) are clear evidence of the way in which love of freedom, nature, and the Church came to coincide (come together at the same time) in his mind.

The Prelude

Nevertheless, it was the direction suggested in "Intimations of Immortality" that, in the view of later criticism, enabled Wordsworth to produce perhaps the most outstanding achievement of English romanticism: *The Prelude*. He worked on it, on and off, for several years and completed the first version in May 1805. *The Prelude* can claim to be the only true romantic epic (long, often heroic work) because it deals in narrative terms with the spiritual growth of the only true romantic hero, the poet. The inward odyssey (journey) of the poet was described not for its own sake but as a sample and as an adequate image of man at his most sensitive.

Wordsworth shared the general romantic notion that personal experience is the only way to gain living knowledge. The purpose of *The Prelude* was to recapture and interpret, with detailed thoroughness, the whole range of experiences that had contributed to the shaping of his own mind. Wordsworth refrained from publishing the poem in his lifetime, revising it continuously. Most important and, perhaps, most to be regretted, the poet also tried to give a more orthodox tinge to his early mystical faith in nature.

Later years

Wordsworth's estrangement (growing apart) from Coleridge in 1810 deprived him of a powerful incentive to imaginative and intellectual alertness. Wordsworth's appointment to a government position in 1813 relieved him of financial care.

Wordsworth's undiminished love for nature made him view the emergent (just appearing) industrial society with undisguised reserve. He opposed the Reform Bill of 1832, which, in his view, merely transferred political power from the land owners to the manufacturing class, but he never stopped pleading in favor of the victims of the factory system.

In 1843 Wordsworth was appointed poet laureate (official poet of a country). He died on April 23, 1850.

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WRIGHT BROTHERS

ORVILLE WRIGHT

Born: August 19, 1871

Dayton, Ohio

Died: January 30, 1948

Dayton, Ohio

WILBUR WRIGHT

Born: April 16, 1867

Millville, Indiana

Died: May 30, 1912

Dayton, Ohio

American aviators

The American aviation pioneers Wilbur and Orville Wright were the first to accomplish manned, powered flight in a heavier-than-air machine.

Their early years

Wilbur and Orville Wright were the sons of Milton Wright, a bishop of the United Brethren in Christ. Wilbur was born on April 16, 1867, in Millville, Indiana. Orville was born on August 19, 1871, in Dayton, Ohio. Until the death of Wilbur in 1912, the two

were inseparable. Their personalities were perfectly complementary (each provided what the other lacked). Orville was full of ideas and enthusiasms. Wilbur was more steady in his habits, more mature in his judgments, and more likely to see a project through.

While in high school, Wilbur intended to go to Yale and study to be a clergyman. However, he suffered a facial injury while playing hockey, which prevented him from continuing his education. For the next three years he continued his education informally through reading in his father's large library.

In their early years the two boys helped their father, who edited a journal called the *Religious Telescope*. Later, they began a paper of their own, *West Side News*. They went into business together as printers producing everything from religious handouts to commercial fliers. In 1892 they opened the Wright Cycle Shop in Dayton. This was the perfect occupation for the Wright brothers because it involved one of the exciting mechanical devices of the time: the bicycle. When the brothers took up the problems of flight, they had a solid grounding in practical mechanics (knowledge of how to build machines).

The exploits of one of the great glider pilots of the late nineteenth century, Otto Lilienthal, had attracted the attention of the Wright brothers as early as 1891, but it was not until the death of this famous aeronautical (having to do with the study of flying and the design of flying machines) engineer in 1896 that the two became interested in gliding experiments. They then decided to educate themselves in the theory and state of the art of flying.



Wilbur Wright (left) and his brother Orville.
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Their beginnings in flight

The Wrights took up the problem of flight at a favorable time, for some of the fundamental, or basic, theories of aerodynamics were already known; a body of experimental data existed; and, most importantly, the recent development of the internal combustion engine made available a sufficient source of power for manned flight.

The Wright brothers began by accumulating and mastering all the important information on the subject, designed and tested their own models and gliders, built their own engine, and, when the experimental data they had inherited appeared to be inadequate or

wrong, they conducted new and more thorough experiments. The Wrights decided that earlier attempts at flight were not successful because the plans for early airplanes required pilots to shift their bodies to control the plane. The brothers decided that it would be better to control a plane by moving its wings.

First trip to Kitty Hawk

The Wright brothers proceeded to fly double-winged kites and gliders in order to gain experience and to test the data they had. After consulting the U.S. Weather Bureau, they chose an area of sand dunes near the small town of Kitty Hawk, North Carolina, as the site of their experiments. In September 1900 they set up camp there.

The Wrights's first device failed to fly as a kite because it was unable to develop sufficient lift (upward force). Instead, they flew it as a free glider. They kept careful records of their failures as well as of their successes. Their own data showed conclusively that previous tables of information they had were greatly inaccurate.

Returning to Dayton in 1901, the Wright brothers built a wind tunnel (a tunnel wherein one can control the flow of wind in order to determine its effect on an object)—the first in the United States. This is where they tested over two hundred models of wing surfaces in order to measure lift and drag (resistance) factors and to discover the most suitable design. They also discovered that although screw propellers had been used on ships for more than half a century, there was no reliable body of data on the subject and no theory that would allow them to design the proper propellers for their airship. They had to work the problem out for themselves mathematically.

The Wrights, by this time, not only had mastered the existing body of aeronautical science but also had added to it. They now built their third glider, incorporating their findings, and in the fall of 1902 they returned to Kitty Hawk. They made over one thousand gliding flights and were able to confirm their previous data and to demonstrate their ability to control motions of the glider. Having learned to build and to control an adequate air frame, they now determined to apply power to their machine.

Powered flight

The Wright brothers soon discovered, however, that no manufacturer would undertake to build an engine that would meet their specifications, so they had to build their own. They produced one that had four cylinders and developed 12 horsepower (a unit that describes the strength of an engine). When it was installed in the air frame, the entire machine weighed just 750 pounds and proved to be capable of traveling 31 miles per hour. They took this new airplane to Kitty Hawk in the fall of 1903 and on December 17 made the world's first manned, powered flight in a heavier-than-air craft.

The first flight was made by Orville and lasted only 12 seconds, during which the airplane flew 120 feet. That same day, however, on its fourth flight, with Wilbur at the controls, the plane stayed in the air for 59 seconds and traveled 852 feet. Then a gust of wind severely damaged the craft. The brothers returned to Dayton convinced of their success and determined to build another machine. In 1905 they abandoned their other activities and concentrated on the development of aviation. On May 22, 1906, they received a patent for their flying machine.

The next step

The brothers looked to the federal government for encouragement in their venture, and gradually interest was aroused in Washington, D.C. In 1907 the government asked for bids for an airplane that would meet certain requirements. Twenty-two bids were received, three were accepted, but only the Wright brothers finished their contract.

The brothers continued their experiments at Kitty Hawk, and in September 1908, while Wilbur was in France attempting to interest foreign backers in their machine, Orville successfully demonstrated their contract airplane. It was accepted by the government. The event was marred by a crash a week later in which Orville was injured and a passenger was killed.

Wilbur's trip to France proved to be a success. In 1909 the Wright brothers formed the American Wright Company, with Wilbur taking the lead in setting up and directing the business. His death in Dayton on May 30, 1912, left Orville feeling depressed and alone. In 1915 he sold his rights to the firm and gave up his interest in manufacturing in order to turn to experimental work. He had little taste for the busy activity of commercial life.

After his retirement, Orville lived quietly in Dayton, conducting experiments on mechanical problems of interest to him, none of which proved to be of major importance. His chief public activity was service on the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics (the government agency that came before the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, or NASA), of which he was a member from its organization by President Woodrow Wilson in 1915 until his death in Dayton on January 30, 1948.

The Wright Brothers helped found modern aviation through their curiosity, their inventiveness, and their unwillingness to give up their vision.

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FRANK LLOYD WRIGHT

Born: June 8, 1869

Richland Center, Wisconsin

Died: April 9, 1959

Phoenix, Arizona

American architect

The American architect Frank Lloyd Wright designed dramatically creative buildings during a career of almost seventy years. His work established the imagery for much of the modern architectural environment.

Early life and education

Frank Lloyd Wright was born on June 8, 1869, in Richland Center, Wisconsin, the first of three children to William, a preacher, and Anna Wright. When he was twelve years old his family settled in Madison, Wisconsin, and Wright worked on his uncle's farm at Spring Green during the summers. After the couple divorced in 1885, Frank lived with his mother, and the two shared a lasting relationship. It was from her that he developed an early love for pure geometric forms and designs, which later influenced his architecture.

Wright developed a passion for the farmland that never left him. He attended Madison High School and left in 1885, apparently without graduating. He went to work as a draftsman, and the following year, while still working, took a few courses in civil engineering at the University of Wisconsin.

In 1887 Wright moved to Chicago, Illinois, worked briefly for an architect, and then joined the firm of Dankmar Adler (1844–1900) and Louis Sullivan (1856–1924). Wright was very much influenced by Sullivan, and, although their relationship ended when Sullivan found out that Wright was designing houses on his own, he always acknowledged Sullivan's influence and referred to him as "lieber meister." In 1893 Wright opened his own office.

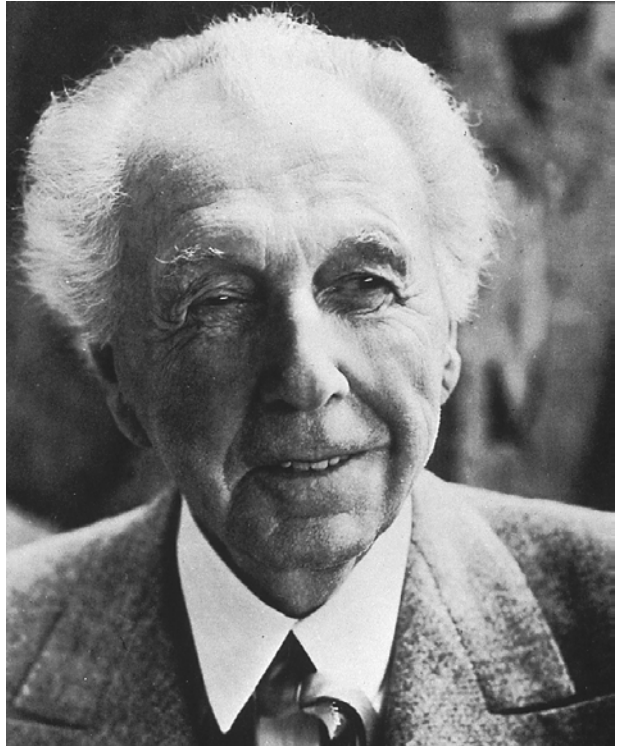
Master of domestic architecture

The houses Wright built in Buffalo, New York, and in Chicago and its suburbs before World War I (1914–18), when German-led forces pushed for European domination, gained international fame wherever there were avant-garde (having to do with new ideas and techniques) movements in the arts. Similarly, in the United States, Wright's clients were exceptional individuals and small, adventurous institutions, not governments or national corporations. A small progressive private school (Hillside Home School, Spring Green, 1902) and an occasional private, commercial firm (Larkin Company in Buffalo) came to him, but chiefly, his clients were Midwestern businessmen, practical, unscholarly, independent, and moderately successful, such as the Chicago building contractor Frederick C. Robie, for whom Wright designed houses.

Early, Wright insisted upon declaring the presence of pure cubic mass, the color and texture of raw stone and brick and copper, and the sharp-etched punctures made by unornamented windows and doors in sheer walls (Charnley House, Chicago, 1891). He made of the house a compact block, which might be enclosed handsomely by a hipped roof (Winslow House, River Forest, Illinois, 1893). Soon, the delight in the simplicity of a single mass gave way to his passion for passages of continuous, flowing spaces and he burst the enclosed, separated spaces of classical architecture, removed the containment, the sense of walls and ceilings, and created single, continuously modified spaces, which he shaped by screens, piers, and different planes and masses.

Philosophy of architecture

Wright's philosophy of architecture was composed of several radical (extreme in differ-



Frank Lloyd Wright.

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ence) and traditional ideas. There was, first, the romantic idea of honest expression: that a building should be faithful in revealing its materials and structure, as Eugène Emmanuel Viollet-le-Duc (1814–1879) had argued, without any classical ornament or fake surface or structure. There was, second, the idea that a building's form should reflect its plan, its functional arrangement of interior spaces, as Henry Latrobe and Horatio Greenough had proposed. There was, third, the belief that each building should express something new and distinctive in the times (G. W. F. Hegel [1770–1831], Gottfried Semper [1803–1879]) and specifically the new technical resources, such

as steel skeletons and electric light and elevators, which suggested skyscrapers and new forms of building (John Wellborn Root). There was, fourth, the ambition, even pride, to achieve an art appropriate to a new nation, an American art, without Continental or English or colonial dependencies. Finally, there was the theory derived by Sullivan from Charles Darwin (1809–1882) and Herbert Spencer (1820–1903) that a building should be similar to a biological organism, a unified work of art, rooted to its soil, organized to serve specified functions, and, as a form, evolved as an organism evolves, fitted to its environment, expressive of its purpose.

If the handsome Taliesin East, whose roofs are rhythmical accents on the edge of a bluff overlooking two valleys, were all that Wright left, he would be remembered as the finest architect who worked in the nineteenth-century tradition of romantic domestic design. But, early, he prepared an idea and an imagery for modern design. He achieved in the Larkin Building, Buffalo (1904; destroyed) an integration of circulation, structure, ventilation, plumbing, furniture, office equipment, and lighting.

Constant search for form

Always distinctive and independent, Wright's style changed often. For about ten years after 1915 he drew upon Mayan (an ancient Indian tribe in Mexico) ornament (Barndall House, Hollywood, California, 1920). Even then Wright avoided the barrenness and abstraction of his designs, he insisted upon having the multiple form of buildings reflect the movement of unique sites: the Kaufmann House, "Falling Water," at Bear Run, Pennsylvania (1936–37), where

interlocked, reinforced-concrete terraces are poised over the waterfall; the low-cost houses (Herbert Jacobs House, Madison, 1937); and the "prairie houses" (Lloyd Lewis House, Libertyville, Illinois, 1940). No architect was more skillful in fitting form to its terrain: the Pauson House in Phoenix, Arizona (1940) rose from the desert, like a Mayan pyramid, its battered wooden walls reflecting the mountains and desert.

Those brilliant rural houses did not reveal how Wright would respond to an urban setting or to the program of a corporate client. But in the Administration Building for the Johnson Wax Company, Racine, Wisconsin (1936–39, with a research tower added in 1950), he astonished architects with his second great commercial building (after the Larkin Building). A continuous, windowless red-brick wall encloses a high, window-lighted interior space; that space, which contains tall columns, is one of the most peaceful and graceful interior spaces in the world. At Florida Southern College he set side-by-side circle and fragmented rhombus (a four-sided plane), recalling Hadrian's Villa at Tivoli, Italy; he set a helix (spiral form structure) inside the Morris Gift Shop in San Francisco, California (1948–49). Ultimately, he conceived of having the helix surround a tall central space: the six-story Guggenheim Museum in New York City (1946–59), which paid in significant functional defects to gain a memorable experience in viewing art, especially where the helix affords views into a side gallery below.

The architectural drawings Wright left behind are magical and lyrical. No one might ever build accordingly, but Wright was never content with the commonplace or ordinary to

the conventional or the practical. He imagined the wonderful where others were content with the probable. Wright's drawings suggest how far his talent surpassed any client's capacity fully to realize his dream: a world of sanctuaries and gardens, of earth and machines, of rivers, seas, mountains, and prairies, where grand architecture enables men to dwell nobly.

Wright died at Taliesin West on April 9, 1959. His widow, Olgivanna, directed the Taliesin Fellowship.

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RICHARD WRIGHT

Born: September 4, 1908

Natchez, Mississippi

Died: November 25, 1960

Paris, France

African American writer

The works of Richard Wright, a politically sophisticated and socially involved African American author, are notable for their passionate sincerity. He was perceptive about the universal problems that had the ability to destroy mankind.

Southern upbringing

Richard Nathaniel Wright was born in Natchez, Mississippi, on September 4, 1908. His mother was a country school teacher and his father an illiterate (a person who is unable to read or write) sharecropper, a poor farmer who shares land with other farmers. The family moved to Memphis, Tennessee, in 1914, and soon the father abandoned them. From then on Richard's education was inconsistent, but he had attained experience beyond his years. He bounced from school to school and desperately tried to make friends and fit in with his fellow classmates.

Wright knew what it was to be a victim of racial hatred before he learned to read, for he was living with an aunt when her husband was lynched (brutally attacked or killed because of one's race). Richard's formal education ended after the ninth grade in Jackson, Mississippi. The fact that his "The Voodoo of Hell's Half-acre" had been published in the local black paper set him apart from his classmates. He was a youth upon whom a dark spirit had already settled.

Becoming a writer

At nineteen Wright decided he wanted to be a writer. He moved to Chicago, Illinois, where he had access to public libraries. He read all he could of Feodor Dostoevsky (1821–1881), Theodore Dreiser (1871–1945), Henry



Richard Wright.

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James (1843–1916), and William James (1842–1910). His interest in social problems led to a friendship with the sociologist (a person who studies the interactions of a society) Louis Wirth. When Richard's mother, brother, and an aunt came to Chicago, he supported them as a postal clerk until the job ended in 1929. After months of living on public welfare, he got a job in the Federal Negro Theater Project in the Works Progress Administration, a government relief agency. Later he became a writer for the Illinois Writers' Project.

Meantime, Wright had joined the John Reed Club, beginning an association with the Communist Party, a political party that

believes goods and services should be owned and distributed by a strong central government. His essays, reviews, short stories, and poems appeared regularly in communist papers, and by 1937, when he became Harlem editor of the *Daily Worker*, he enjoyed a considerable reputation in left-wing circles. Four novellas (short novels), published as *Uncle Tom's Children* (1938), introduced him to a large general audience.

Native Son

Wright's first novel, *Native Son* (1940), a brutally honest depiction of black, urban, ghetto life, was an immediate success. The story's protagonist, or main character, represents all the fear, rage, rebellion, spiritual hunger and the undisciplined drive to satisfy it, that social psychologists (people who are trained to study the mental and behavioral characteristics of people) were just beginning to recognize as common elements in the personality of the poor people of all races.

Wright's intention was to make the particular truth universal (all around) and to project his native son as a symbol of the poorly treated in all lands. Critics, however, unimpressed by the universal symbol, were interested instead in Wright's passionate criticisms of white racism (belief that one race is superior to another) and the lifestyle it imposed upon African Americans. Wright believed that there was a better way of social organization different from democracy (government by the people), and that Communism could be the better way. These ideas were toned down in the stage version. In 1941 Wright also published *Twelve Million Black Voices: A Folk History of the Negro of the United States*.

By 1940 Wright had married and divorced; and a few months after his second marriage, he broke with the Communist Party. (His "I Tried To Be a Communist," published in the *Atlantic* in 1944, was reprinted in 1949 in *The God That Failed*, edited by Richard Crossman.) The break freed him from social commitments that were beginning to seem troublesome. In *Black Boy*, a fictionalized autobiography (book written about oneself), his only commitment is to truth. The book was published in January 1945, and sales reached four hundred thousand copies by March. Wright accepted an invitation from the French government to visit France, and the three-month experience, in sharp contrast to his experience in his own country, "exhilarated" (excited and refreshed) him with a "sense of freedom." People of the highest intellectual and artistic circles met him "as an equal."

Years overseas

Wright, his wife, and daughter moved permanently to Paris, France. Within a year and a half Wright was off to Argentina, where he "starred" in the film version of *Native Son*. *The Outsider*, the first of three novels written in France, was deeply influenced by existentialism, a philosophy that stresses the individual experience in the universe, whose most famous spokespersons, Jean Paul Sartre (1905–1980) and Simone de Beauvoir (1908–1986), were Wright's close friends. Following *Savage Holiday* (1954), a potboiler (a book, that is usually of poorer quality, written to make money), *The Long Dream* (1958) proved that Wright had been too long out of touch with the American reality to deal with it effectively. None of the novels written in

France succeeded. His experiments with poetry did not produce enough for a book.

Nonfiction works

In 1953 Wright visited Africa, where he hoped to "discover his roots" as a black man. *Black Power* (1954) combines the elements of a travel book with a passionate political treatise, or formal writing, on the "completely different order of life" in Africa. In 1955 he attended the Afro-Asian Conference in Bandung, Indonesia, and published his impressions in *The Color Curtain* (1956). *Pagan Spain* (1956), based on two months in Spain, is the best of his nonfiction works. *White Man, Listen* (1957) is a collection of four long essays on "White-colored, East-West relations."

In 1960, following an unhappy attempt to settle in England, and in the midst of a rugged lecture schedule, Wright fell ill. He entered a hospital in Paris on November 25 and died three days later. *Eight Men* (1961), a collection of short stories, and *Lawd Today* (1963), a novel, were published after his death.

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WILLIAM BUTLER YEATS

Born: June 13, 1865

Dublin, Ireland

Died: January 28, 1939

Roquebrune, France

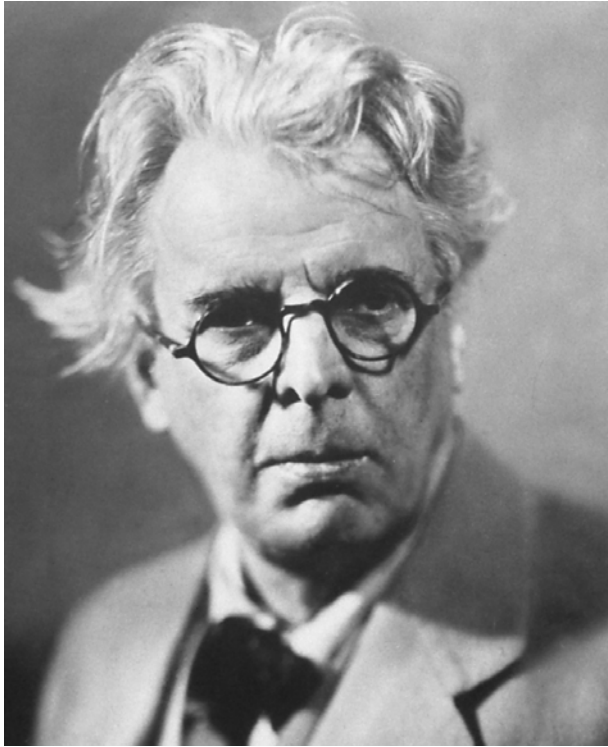
Irish poet and dramatist

William Butler Yeats was an Irish poet and dramatist (playwright). Some think he was the greatest poet of the twentieth century. He won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1923. The works of William Butler Yeats form a bridge between the romantic poetry of the nine-

teenth century and the hard clear language of modern poetry.

Early years

William Butler Yeats was born on June 13, 1865, in Dublin, Ireland. He was the oldest of four children of John Butler Yeats, a portrait artist. His father added to William's formal schooling with lessons at home that gave him an enduring taste for the classics. John Yeats had a forceful personality. His personal philosophy was a blend of aestheticism (a belief that art and beauty are important for everything) and atheism (a belief that there is no God). William felt its influence much later as it showed up in his interest in magic and the occult (supernatural)



William Butler Yeats.

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sciences and in his highly original system of aesthetics (beauty).

At the age of nineteen Yeats enrolled in the Metropolitan School of Art in Dublin, intending to become a painter. In 1887 he became a literary correspondent for two American newspapers. Among his acquaintances at this time were his father's artist and writer friends, including William Morris (1834–1896), George Bernard Shaw (1856–1950), and Oscar Wilde (1856–1900).

Important friendships

In 1889 Yeats met the woman who became the greatest single influence on his life

and poetry, Maud Gonne. She was Yeats's first and deepest love. She admired his poetry but rejected his repeated offers of marriage, choosing instead to marry Major John MacBride. Gonne came to represent for Yeats the ideal of feminine beauty—she appears as Helen of Troy in several of his poems—but a beauty disfigured and wasted by what Yeats considered an unsuitable marriage and her involvement in a hopeless political cause, Irish independence.

Yeats became a founding member of literary clubs in London, England, and Dublin. During this period he became friends with the dramatist John Millington Synge (1871–1909). He was introduced to Synge in 1896, and later directed the Abbey Theatre in Dublin with him.

The American poet Ezra Pound (1885–1972) came to London for the specific purpose of meeting Yeats in 1909. Pound served as Yeats's secretary off and on between 1912 and 1916. Pound introduced Yeats to the Japanese *No* drama (a form of Japanese theater similar in many ways to Greek tragedy). Yeats's verse dramas (plays in the form of poetry) reflect the ceremonial formality and symbolism of *No*.

The death of Maud Gonne's husband seemed to offer promise that she might now accept Yeats's proposal of marriage. She turned him down in 1917. He proposed to her daughter, Iseult MacBride, only to be rejected by her too. That same year he married Miss George Hyde-Less.

Soon after their wedding, Yeats's new wife developed the power of automatic writing (writing as though coming from an outside source) and began to utter strange phrases in her sleep that she thought were dictated by spirits from another world. Yeats

copied down these fragments and incorporated them into his occult aesthetic system, published as *A Vision* in 1925. A daughter, Anne Butler Yeats, was born in 1919, and a son, William Michael, two years later.

Poet and dramatist

Yeats's first book of poems, *The Wanderings of Oisín and Other Poems*, was published in 1889. In the long title poem he began his celebration of the ancient Irish heroes Oisín, Finn, Aengus, and St. Patrick. This interest was evident also in his collection of Irish folklore, *Fairy and Folk Tales* (1888). His long verse drama, *The Countess Cathleen* (1892), was a combination of modern dramatic forms with ancient beliefs and modern Irish history. He followed this with his collection of romantic tales and mood sketches, *The Celtic Twilight* (1893). Yeats's *Secret Rose* (1897) includes poems that he called personal, occult, and Irish. More figures from ancient Irish history and legend appeared in this volume. *The Wind among the Reeds* (1899) won the Royal Academy Prize as the best book of poems published that year.

The Abbey Theater

An important milestone in the history of the modern theater occurred in 1902, when Yeats, Maud Gonne, Douglas Hyde, and George Russell founded the Irish National Theatre Society, out of which grew the Abbey Theatre Company in 1904. Yeats's experience with the theater gave to his volume of poems *In the Seven Woods* (1907) a new style—less elaborate, less romantic, and more straight forward in language and imagery.

Some of Yeats's plays show his great interest in ancient royalty and "half-forgotten things," but his poetry was unmistakably

new. Yeats's play *At the Hawk's Well*, written and produced in 1915, showed the influence of Japanese *No* drama in its use of masks and in its dances by a Japanese choreographer.

From 1918 to 1923 Yeats and his wife lived in a restored tower at Ballylee (Galway), Ireland. The tower became a prominent symbol in his best poems, notably in those that make up *The Tower* (1928).

Yeats was elected an Irish senator in 1922, a post he filled until his retirement in 1928. He received the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1923. His acceptance of the role and its responsibilities had been foreshadowed (predicted) in his poems *Responsibilities* (1914). The outbreak of civil war in Ireland in 1922 had heightened his conviction that the artist must lead the way through art, rather than through politics, to a harmonious (in tune) ordering of chaos.

Aesthetic theories and systems

Yeats devised his doctrine of the mask as a means of presenting very personal thoughts and experiences to the world without danger of sentimentality (excessive emotions). By discovering the kind of man who would be his exact opposite, Yeats believed he could then put on the mask of this ideal "antiseif" and thus produce art from the synthesis (combination) of opposing natures. For this reason his poetry is often structured on paired opposites, as in "Sailing to Byzantium."

Yeats turned to magic for the illogical system that would oppose and complete his art. He drew upon Buddhism (an ancient Eastern religion), as well as upon Jewish and Christian mystic (spiritual) books to try and capture what he thought was a harmony of the opposite elements of life

Yeats believed that history was cyclical (circular) and that every two thousand years a new cycle, which is the opposite of the cycle that has preceded it, begins. In his poem "The Second Coming," the birth of Christ begins one cycle, which ends, as the poem ends, with a "rough beast," mysterious and menacing, who "slouches towards Bethlehem to be born."

Last works

Yeats's last plays were *Purgatory* (1938) and *The Death of Cuchulain* (1938). He died in Roquebrune, France, on January 28, 1929. He had retired there because of ill health. He had the lines of one of his poems engraved on his tombstone in Ireland: "Cast a cold eye / On life, on death. / Horseman, pass by!" Yeats was not only one of the greatest poets and a major figure in the Irish literary renaissance (rebirth), but also wrote some of the greatest of all twentieth-century literature.

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BORIS YELTSIN

Born: February 1, 1931

Butko, Siberia, Russia

Russian president, politician, and government official

Boris Yeltsin, who became president of Russia in 1991, was one of the most complex political leaders of his time. A longtime Communist Party leader, he was an important leader in the reform (social improvement) movements of the late 1980s and 1990s. Yeltsin was perceived at varying times as a folk hero, as a symbol of Russia's struggle to establish a democracy, and as a dictatorial figure (an all-powerful ruler).

Early life

Boris Nikolaevich Yeltsin was born into a Russian working-class family on February 1, 1931, in the small Siberian village of Butko. His parents were Nikolai and Klavdia Yeltsin. He grew up with a younger brother, Mikhail, and a younger sister, Valya. The Yeltsin family lived in communal, or group, situations, first on a farm and later at a construction site where his father worked. His family was in close contact with many other families and their privacy was extremely limited. Yeltsin lived and worked in Siberia for most of his life. His early life, like most of his countrymen in the 1930s and 1940s, was marked by hardship, and as the oldest child Boris had numerous responsibilities at home.

A strong-willed child, Boris twice stood up to the educational system. At his elementary school graduation he criticized his homeroom teacher's abusive behavior, which resulted in him being kicked out of school. He appealed the decision and, after an investigation, the teacher was dismissed. During his last year in high school Yeltsin was stricken with typhoid fever, a terrible disease that causes fever and other symptoms and is easily spread, and forced to study at home. Denied the right to take final examinations

because he had not attended school, he appealed and won. His actions were extraordinary considering this happened during the rule of Joseph Stalin (1879–1953), a period when the government had an intense stronghold on its citizens.

Trained as an engineer, Yeltsin graduated from the Ural Polytechnic Institute. He married his wife Naina at a young age and they had two daughters. The family is believed to be closely knit.

Yeltsin initially worked as an engineer in the construction industry in Sverdlovsk, moved into management of the industry, and later began a career in the Communist Party, eventually becoming first secretary of the party in Sverdlovsk. Yeltsin joined the Communist Party at age thirty, relatively late for a man with political dreams.

A party leader in Moscow

In 1985 Mikhail S. Gorbachev (1931–), the new general secretary of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU), brought Yeltsin to Moscow to serve as secretary for the construction industry. Within a year he was appointed head of the Communist Party of Moscow. The eighteen months that followed were a time of achievement and frustration, ending in his dismissal as a candidate member of the Politburo (the top members of the Communist Party) and first secretary of the Moscow Party.

Yeltsin disliked Moscow at first and criticized the privileges of the city's political elite (highest social class). As a political leader, Yeltsin often traveled to work on public transportation and mingled with ordinary people, unusual behavior among the Soviet

elite, who usually traveled in curtained limousines. Yeltsin criticized the pace of the reforms known as *perestroika* and the behavior of some Politburo members. Yeltsin was removed as secretary of the Moscow Party, and he resigned from the Politburo. Yeltsin remained a party member, and Gorbachev appointed him a deputy minister in the construction industry, an area in which he had decades of experience.

In the late 1980s, after Yeltsin criticized *perestroika*, his personal relationship with Gorbachev fell apart. In the 1989 elections Yeltsin surprised the party by receiving 90 percent of the vote and, with great difficulty, was

elected to the small, but important, parliamentary (governing) body, the Supreme Soviet. Gorbachev was elected (chairman) president of the Soviet Union by the new parliament.

During 1989 and 1990 Yeltsin's views made him a folk hero in Moscow, where crowds chanting "Yeltsin, Yeltsin" were a frequent sight. Yeltsin was also elected to the Russian parliament, which in May 1990 selected him as chairman (president) of the Russian Republic. Later that year, Yeltsin formally resigned from the Communist Party.

President of the Republic of Russia

In June 1991 the Russian Republic held its first election for president, and Yeltsin defeated six opponents to win the presidency. As president he declared the Russian Republic independent of the Soviet Union.

Yeltsin as president of the Russian Republic (RSFSR) and Gorbachev as president of the Soviet Union agreed to cooperate on economic reform, a reversal since their relationship fell apart in 1987. However, on August 19, 1991, eight conservative party and government leaders led a coup (takeover) against the vacationing Gorbachev. Yeltsin led the dramatic opposition to the coup and secured Gorbachev's return to Moscow.

In the aftermath of Gorbachev's rescue, Yeltsin consolidated (unified) his own power. Yeltsin led the movement to dissolve the Russian parliament and outlaw the Communist Party on Russian soil. These acts further weakened Gorbachev's power base. In the fall of 1991 Yeltsin and other republic leaders declared the independence of their respective republics, and in December the presidents of Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus (Belorussia)

formed the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), declaring they would no longer recognize the Soviet Union as of January 1, 1992. Eight other republics joined the CIS, while four republics became completely independent. Gorbachev resigned before year's end, and as of January 1, 1992, the Soviet Union no longer existed. Yeltsin, who in 1987 had been dismissed from the Soviet leadership, became the head of post-Soviet Russia, the largest of the Soviet successor states.

A new era

Yeltsin began a new chapter in 1992 as president of independent Russia. He undertook an ambitious program of economic reform with mixed results. Businesses were returned to the private sector but the economy began to crumble. Yeltsin's policies were frequently challenged during 1992, ending in a major showdown with the Russian parliament in December 1992. Yeltsin dissolved parliament in September 1993 and a sit-in (peaceful protest) began. In early October 1993, a confrontation occurred, resulting in hundreds of deaths and injuries as well as considerable damage to several Moscow landmarks. The sit-in was eventually stopped.

Yeltsin survived the political crisis, but his reputation suffered. The democratic Yeltsin who protested in the streets of Moscow in the late 1980s was forgotten and a dictatorial (harsh leadership by one) image of Yeltsin emerged. Yeltsin remained at the helm of Russian politics, but as a less heroic figure than the Yeltsin of 1991. Although reelected in 1996, Yeltsin's future was clouded by Russia's economic crisis and the failure of his reform program, combined with the bitter aftertaste of Yeltsin's confrontation with parliament.

Losing power

After the 1996 elections it became clear that Yeltsin had deceived the Russian people about his health. In fact, he had suffered a heart attack prior to elections, and was not well. Although he continued as president, there was talk within the international and Russian community about who would take his place as president.

In 1997 Yeltsin continued to face domestic problems in his new term. The Russian financial picture continued to grow grim, industrial production slowed, and even Russian life expectancy dropped drastically, by six years. Indeed, in 1997, employees frequently waited as long as three months for payment.

Yeltsin had his political stability tested again in May of 1999 when a Communist-led attempt to impeach (to charge with misconduct) him failed. Yeltsin faced five charges—one of the most significant being the accusation that he started the war in Chechnya in 1994—but eventually the charges were dropped. Yeltsin continued to suffer from health problems during his second term, spending large amounts of time out of the public eye as a result. Despite his ill health, Yeltsin remained a dominate political force, dismissing four prime ministers during 1998 and 1999.

Stepping down

Citing the need for new leadership in Russia, Yeltsin suddenly resigned as president on December 31, 1999. Many believed that Yeltsin's declining popularity and failing health contributed to the decision that ended the leader's second term six months early. "I am stepping down ahead of term. I under-

stand that I must do it and Russia must enter a new millennium with new politicians, with new faces, with new intelligent, strong, energetic people, and we who have been in power for many years must go," Yeltsin said during a public address on Russian national television.

Though Yeltsin received praise from then-President Bill Clinton (1946–), most Russians would likely disagree with the glowing review of the leader's eight years in office. Yeltsin's attempts to create a better economy were often crippled by corruption and incompetence, and he became increasingly disliked by the Russian people as a result. Yeltsin appointed Russian Prime Minister Vladimir Putin (1952–) as acting president until a March 2000 election. Putin, a former KGB (the Soviet Union secret police) officer and popular politician, served as both acting president and prime minister. Yeltsin planned to start a political foundation and travel Europe in his retirement.

In 2001 Yeltsin was given Russia's highest award known as "Order of Service to the Fatherland, First Degree." President Putin honored Yeltsin with this award for his part in changing the future of Russia by helping to end the Soviet Union.

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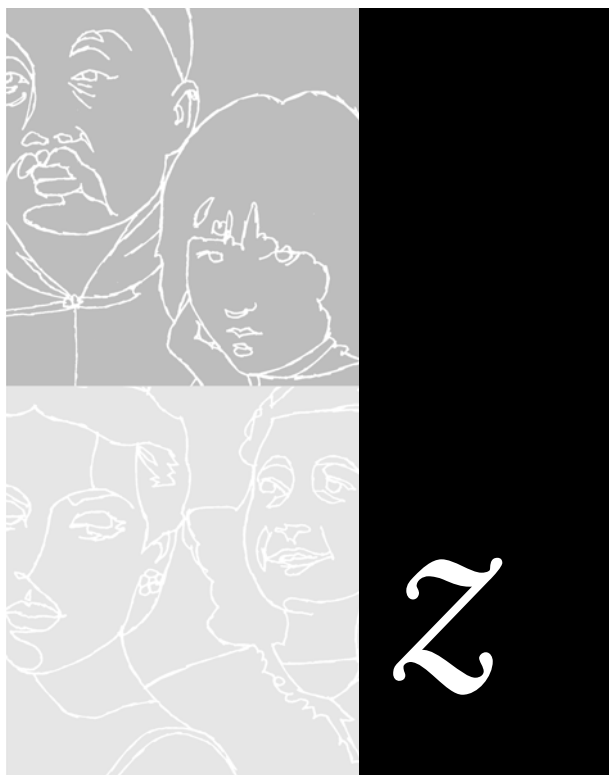
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PAUL ZINDEL

Born: May 15, 1936

Staten Island, New York

American playwright, screenwriter, and author

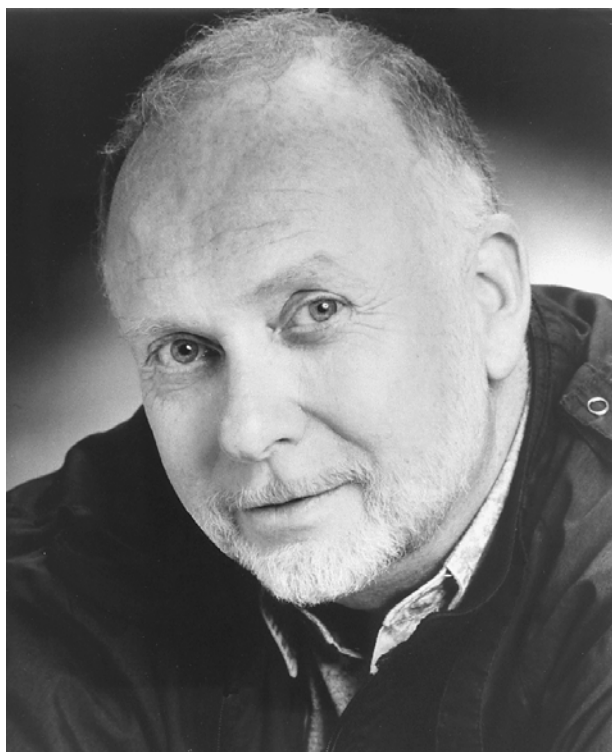
From Pulitzer prize-winning playwright to young adult fiction writer, American author Paul Zindel turned his real-life turbulent (marked by disturbance and unrest) teens into fictional stories to show teenagers that their lives and feelings do matter.

Early adventures

Paul Zindel was born on May 15, 1936, in Staten Island, New York. His father, also named

Paul, left Zindel, his older sister Betty, and his mother, Betty, for a girlfriend when young Paul was just two years old. This event began Zindel's early adventures. After his father left, Zindel's mother started moving from town to town and from job to job. From shipyard worker to dog breeder, Betty Zindel seemed unable to keep any job. Yet Zindel offered a sort of compliment to his mother: "what mother lacked in money, she made up for being able to talk a mile a minute." Zindel's mother, however, also constantly threatened suicide. Zindel described his home as a "house of fear." He coped not only by creating a fantasy life, but also by wishing he would be abducted by aliens.

In 1951, when Zindel was fifteen, his wish to escape from his home was granted—



Paul Zindel.

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although not by aliens, but by doctors. He was diagnosed with tuberculosis. Since tuberculosis is a highly contagious disease of the lungs, he was confined to the hospital for eighteen months—it was here that Zindel wrote his first play.

After recovering, Zindel graduated from high school and left home once again, this time to attend Wagner College in Staten Island. Zindel did not receive a degree in English, literature, or writing, but in 1958, received his bachelor's degree in chemistry and education. In 1959 he also completed a masters of science degree in chemistry. Following college, Zindel found work as a tech-

nical writer for a chemical company. After six months, he quit and became a chemistry teacher at Tottenville High School in Staten Island. In his free time, he continued to write plays such as *Dimensions of Peacocks* and *A Dream of Swallows*. In the early 1960s, both plays ran on stage in New York City.

Success in two genres

In the mid-1960s, Zindel wrote *The Effect of Gamma Rays on Man-in-the-Moon Marigolds*. *Gamma Rays* tells the story of Tillie, a teenager who feels smothered by her critical mother and a sister who suffers from epilepsy, a severe disorder that effects motor skills. However, Tillie finds hope for her life when the marigolds she exposed to radiation for a science project, bloom. Zindel won many awards for *Gamma Rays*, including the 1971 Pulitzer Prize in drama. Zindel, as stated in the forward to the Bantam Edition, said of this often-awarded play, "I suspect it is autobiographical, because whenever I see a production of it I laugh and cry harder than anyone else in the audience."

After viewing a televised version of *Gamma Rays*, Charlotte Zolotow, an editor at Harper & Row publishers, suggested to Zindel that he write a young adult fiction book. Zindel published *The Pigman* in 1968. *The Pigman* told the story of a betrayed friendship between two high school sophomores, John and Lorraine, and a widower named Mr. Angelo Pignati. After an illness forces Mr. Pignati, the "Pigman," out of his home, he entrusts John and Lorraine with its care and his cherished ceramic pig collection. John and Lorraine betray this trust and the Pigman's friendship, however, by throwing a party where his collection is accidentally

smashed. With this book, Zindel not only continued collecting awards, including the American Library Association's Best Young Adult Book citation, but also praise.

Writing for teenagers

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, Zindel continued writing books for teenagers. *My Darling, My Hamburger* (1969) probed the questions about lust, sex, contraception (birth control), and abortion (a woman's right to end a pregnancy); true love was the subject in *I Never Loved Your Mind* (1970); parental pressure and friendship came under discussion in *Pardon Me, You're Stepping on My Eyeball!* (1976); and truth and the perception (the concept) of truth in *The Undertaker's Gone Bananas* (1978). A collaboration (the work of two or more people) with his wife, Bonnie Hildebrand, whom he had married in 1973, produced *A Star for the Latecomer* in 1980. In that same year, Zindel published a sequel (the next part of a story) to his most popular book *The Pigman*. *The Pigman's Legacy* returned readers to Mr. Pignati's house where John and Lorraine have a second chance to do the right thing and help another elderly man, Gus, live out his final days. However, this was not Zindel's final tale about a "Pigman."

Zindel's works in the 1990s have stretched his talents even more. In 1993 he published several children's books, including *Fright Party*, *David and Della*, and *Attack of the Killer*. That same year, he also released *The Fifth-Grade Safari*. Returning to his young adult audience, Zindel published *Loch* in 1994 and *The Doom Stone* the following year.

Over the past thirty years, Zindel has followed his Pigman's advice. From stage and screen plays to young adult fiction books, he has used his imagination and shared his real-life adventures. In 2002 Zindel was awarded the Margaret A. Edwards Award for his lifetime contribution in writing for young adults.

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